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TEACHING ARABIC AND ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES:  
THE APPLICATION OF THEORY-GROUNDED METHODS

by

Mohammed Hussein

A portfolio submitted in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

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UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY

Logan, Utah

2014

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إهداء

إلى شهداء الحرية في ميادين مصر

التحرير – ماسبيرو – النهضة – رابعة العدوية

Dedication

To the martyrs of freedom in the Egyptian Squares:

Al-Tahrir, Maspero, Al-Nahda, and Rabaa Al-Adawiya

## ABSTRACT

Teaching Arabic and English to Speakers of Other Languages: The Application of  
Theory-Grounded Methods

by

Mohammed Hussein: Master of Second Language Teaching  
Utah State University, 2014

Major Professor: Dr. Abdulkafi Albirini

Department: Languages, Philosophy, and Communication Studies

This portfolio is a collection of artifacts that represent the author's beliefs and ideas about teaching a second language. The first section is the author's teaching philosophy statement, in which he explains how to apply the three modes of communication in the second language classroom. The second section is a literacy artifact that addresses how to use literature to heighten learners' level of second language literacy. The following two artifacts are on two basic applications of sociocultural theory: concept-based instruction and dynamic assessment. The cultural artifact addresses the pedagogical implications of code-switching in the Arabic language classroom. The third artifact is a reflection on a lesson plan in which the author explains how he benefits from dynamic assessment in the classroom. Finally, the portfolio ends with four annotated bibliographies relevant to the topics discussed in the portfolio. Those topics are teaching second language, diglossia, dynamic assessment, and technology in the classroom.

(159 pages)

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## **Introduction**

This work is a compilation of papers that were written during my study in the Master of Second Language Teaching program at Utah State University. Some parts of this portfolio are on teaching English to speakers of other languages and other parts focus on teaching Arabic to speakers of other languages. The main theme of this work is the application of research-informed and theory-based methods in teaching second languages. My teaching methods are derived from both communicative and sociocultural perspectives as illustrated in my teaching philosophy statement (TPS), the first chapter of this portfolio. My TPS is followed by three artifacts on literacy, culture, and language, in addition to four annotated bibliographies on four different themes.

In my TPS, I explain how I apply the three modes of communication in the language classroom. My TPS is basically focused on the communicative approach, based on the theories of Krashen (1985), Long (1995), Swain (1985) and VanPatten (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). I also explain briefly how I integrate the concepts I learned about the sociocultural perspective (Vygotsky, 1978) in the classroom, leaving the detailed explanation to other artifacts. The final theme of my TPS is the use of technology to enhance the students' knowledge within the three modes of communication.

The TPS is followed by three artifacts. The first artifact, which is the cultural artifact, is focused on teaching Arabic as a foreign language. In this artifact, I discuss a very important issue related to teaching Arabic as a second language which is diglossic code-switching. While there are two codes of Arabic, standard and dialectical, native speakers switch between them for several reasons. Albirini (2011) explains the different

functions of diglossic code-switching in Arabic language. In this artifact, I explain how we should use concept-based instruction (Gal'perin, 1992), which is inspired by sociocultural theory, to teach the pragmatic aspects of code-switching in the Arabic language classroom.

The main theme of my second artifact is building literacy through teaching literature. As literature is a valuable source of input, I explain in this artifact how to use literature to build different aspects of literacy, namely code-breaking, text-participation (Freebody & Luke, 1990) and cultural literacy (Hirsch, Kett & Trefil, 1987). Teaching literature is seen also as content-based instruction (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989) which finds its root in the communicative approach as it seen as teaching *authentic texts* (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). The course is a reflection on my experience in teaching in the Global Academy program, an immersion ESL course that USU offers.

The third artifact is on a dynamic assessment. Dynamic assessment not only evaluates the solo performance of language learners, but also takes into consideration evaluating what language learners can do if they are offered help during assessment. Dynamic assessments finds its roots in sociocultural theory also, and it focuses on assessing learners' potential development, or their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

The final part of this portfolio contains a collection of four annotated bibliographies that cover different themes discussed in this portfolio. The first annotated bibliography is on second language teaching and learning in which I speak about the most influential works that guided the development of the communicative approach of second language teaching. The second annotated bibliography focuses on the use of technology

in the language classroom. In this one, I cite various works relate to computer-mediated communication (CMC) and ways to use CMC in second language teaching. The third annotated bibliography is on Dynamic Assessment, in which I refer to important works related to sociocultural theory and dynamic assessment. The final annotated bibliography is on diglossia. In this annotated bibliography I speak about major works in Arabic sociolinguistics which illustrate the background of my cultural artifact.

## Teaching Philosophy



### **Apprenticeship of Observation**

I received my education in a religious school in a small village that was far away from our house. As was true for many things in my early life, I did not choose my school. Had I had the choice, I would have chosen a fancy school in the city, where I could find friends who share the aspects of a city lifestyle with me. But my father, maybe because of the way he was raised, believed that education in villages and suburbs is much better than education in cities. After realizing that education was not better in the cities, even though the schools looked nicer, I believe now he was right, and since he was a devoted Muslim, too, he decided to send me to this religious governmental school.

I used to see the farmers in their traditional clothes, going to their fields every day in the morning, riding their camels and donkeys and leading their herds of cattle. I do not know why I felt that this was disgusting at the time. Maybe it was because I used to live in the city where I did not get to see this in my neighborhood. However, and I believe this is what happens always, at first you might not like something, then eventually you get used to it, you begin to like it, and finally you cannot imagine life without it. That is exactly what happened to me. I developed an appreciation for the simple life and the people who taught me and I appreciated the quite simple environment in which I received my education. I mean by simple environment that there was no technology such as projectors or computers, no heavy traffic, and a slow pace of life.

Education in that rural area was very basic. The methods of teaching can best be described as the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM). Anyone approaching the school building could hear the students reciting and chanting, regardless of the subject they were being

taught. The rule was, ‘the smartest kid has the loudest voice.’ We used to repeat after the teacher and memorize everything in the book, even in math classes. I remember that I spent a long time repeating multiplication tables to memorize them by heart.

Nevertheless, I do not doubt the good intention that my teachers had or question the love and affection they surrounded me with. It was simply the only way they knew. That is how they received their education, and there was no reason for them to change the way they learned. They were great, simple people whom I came to admire and love.

Obviously, English class was not an exception. Now that I reflect back, I wonder, “Did my first English teacher speak any English in class?” Memorization and writing drills were the general norm. I believe I was able to achieve some success in English because of my understanding of the grammar rules of Arabic first, and then of English, an early passion for structural linguistics that I would develop later.

I earned high grades in English, and joined the school of Language and Translation at Al-Azhar University in which I studied English and Islamic Studies. There, I faced another challenge. Although nearly all my professors were highly qualified teachers who had earned their PhDs from prestigious universities in England and the USA, they were not able to teach in a communicative way because of the large number of students. The number of the students per class varied between 150 and 200 students. There was no way to manage such a large number except to lecture them. Students who did not pay suitable attention would get lost in the crowd. It was during my third university year that I decided that I needed to take a major step in the way I received my education. I saw an advertisement of the Near East and South Asia undergraduate

Exchange program published by the American Embassy in Cairo. I applied, and my application was accepted.

This was my first experience in the USA! I studied for one academic semester at Jackson State University (JSU). I attended classes in public speaking and human communication. I was amazed by the small classes, the university facilities, and the American education system. After attending one public speaking class, I had no doubt that I wanted to become a teacher. I got to know the American culture and people better. JSU is a black-dominant university, and in the public speaking class we put much emphasis on the rhetoric of African American civil rights activists. I was inspired by the speeches of Martin Luther King Jr. and Malcolm X, and I was informed about an essential part of the American History. This semester was a turning point in my life, not only academically, but also personally.

Upon returning to Egypt, I had this sense that I would go back to the USA. After graduation, I realized that being a teacher would not be financially rewarding. For financial reasons, I took a job as a translator in a small English Satellite channel. Even though I liked translation, I had these dreams in the back of my mind. I wanted to travel, I wanted to teach, and I wanted to be a linguist. I kept searching for scholarships and chances to travel. I applied first to a master's program, but my application was rejected. Then I applied to the Fulbright Foreign Language Teaching Assistant Program, and this time I was accepted.

I do not know how I was placed at USU, but I am sure this was one of the best things in my life. The Master of Second Language Teaching (MSLT) program is a unique program of Applied Linguistics. The courses I audited as a Fulbrighter have changed my

perception of language teaching. I said to myself, “This is where I want to be, and that is what I want to study”. I applied for the MSLT program, and was accepted.

I look at the future now, and believe it is full of opportunities. I want to be a researcher and teacher of linguistics and a language teacher. There are so many areas of research in addition to Second Language Acquisition: corpus linguistics, computational linguistics, translation linguistics, discourse analysis, and other areas of interest. In this portfolio I will focus on my work as a language teacher.

### **Professional Environment**

I have been always passionate about teaching and languages. I loved teaching the Arabic language for native and non-native speakers of Arabic. Then I got a degree in English and developed another passion. I taught English as a private tutor for a while. I also feel more comfortable dealing with adult students, either in the university settings or community centers.

The professional environment that I envision for myself is of dual emphasis. The first one is mainly teaching Arabic as a foreign/second language for adults. Second is teaching English as a foreign language for Arabic Adults. Both types of emphasis are either in the university settings or in community centers. This portfolio highlights the aspects of learning that I perceive as important for language educators in this environment.

## Teaching Philosophy Statement

### Introduction

As a teacher of Arabic as a Foreign Language in the USA, I try to adhere to the standards for foreign language learning promoted by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). ACTFL (2014) delineates three modes of communication: interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational. This means that language learners should be able to engage in conversations on an interpersonal level, interpret written and spoken language, and present opinions and information in the second language (L2). To acquire these abilities, learners need to be actively engaged in processing input and producing output in the L2; they will not acquire the L2 by spending whole class periods sitting quietly while listening to the teacher's explanations. In my teaching philosophy statement, I will outline how I apply the three modes of communication in the language classroom according to what I learned in the MSLT program. Since the use of technology has become an integral part of the language classroom, I will also explain how I integrate technology in the language classroom to enhance the acquisition of these three modes of communication. Finally, I will explain the sociocultural perspective in teaching language, and how I apply it in the language classroom.

I received my English language education under the Audiolingual Method (ALM) in which the instructor is viewed as the authority and the students are seen as passive recipients. The focus in my English class was on grammar rules which seemed to me like mathematical equations. One drill I remember well was "convert into the passive voice!"

which I was able to complete 100% correct without understanding a word, simply because I memorized the rules very well. Obviously, this method did not enable me to communicate effectively. My teachers seemed to have been of the opinion “that students did not need to know what they were saying; they needed to know only that what they were saying was correct” (Lee & VanPatten, 2003, p.10).

The main purpose of L2 teaching is not learning grammar rules. As research indicates (e.g., Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandelle, 2001; Shrum & Glisan, 2010; Younes, 2006), the main objective of L2 learners is to speak the target language and to *communicate* with members of the target culture. ACTFL (2014) standards for foreign language learning state that students should be able to engage in conversations on an *interpersonal* level, *interpret* written and spoken language and *present* information in the L2. In order to reflect these standards, classroom activities should provide the students with opportunities to interpret texts, to present through speaking and writing, and, most importantly, to engage in interpersonal communication in which they can negotiate meaning (Ballman et al., 2001).

I used to look at language teaching as the development of production tasks (writing and speaking) and comprehension tasks (listening and reading). My study of the communicative approach has shifted my focus to the three modes of communication in which all of these skills are used together. For example, the interpersonal mode includes speaking and listening, as in the case of conversations, phone calls, and interviews. It also includes writing in text messages, emails, and communication through social networking websites. The presentational mode includes presenting advertisements, writing news articles, etc. In the interpretive mode, speakers browse websites, watch movies, and so

on. That is to say, the four language skills – reading, writing, speaking, and listening – do not occur in a vacuum, or practiced separately from each other. That is why in my classroom, I do not focus on one specific skill. Rather, in each lesson plan, I integrate two or more language skills in the same lesson.

In the next part I will discuss the importance of these aspects for Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

### **Teaching the interpretive mode of communication**

The interpretive mode is crucial because interpretive activities provide learners with the required input they need for the other two modes. Studies have shown that acquisition happens when learners receive large amounts of comprehensible input that contains structures and vocabulary just a little beyond their current level of competence (Krashen & Terrell, 1988; Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Shrum & Glisan, 2010; VanPatten & Williams, 2007). An important contribution in this area is Krashen's monitor theory (Krashen & Terrell, 1988) in which he differentiates between *acquisition* on one hand, which "takes place naturally and outside of awareness" (VanPatten & Williams, 2007, p. 26), and *learning* on the other hand, which indicates "gaining an explicit knowledge" (VanPatten & Williams, 2007, p. 26). Krashen argues that the main function of our learned knowledge is to edit and modify the acquired knowledge. In an SLA context, learners might be able to use their learned knowledge if they have enough time (as for a fill-in-the-blank activity) but this does not necessarily mean that they are acquiring the language. Krashen argues that the *only way* of acquiring an L2 is to understand messages in that language. The message provided in L2 is the input that students need to understand. In other words, learners acquire L2 only if they are exposed to



*comprehensible input* in this language (VanPatten & Williams, 2007) and they are expected to pay attention to this input because they need to *do* something with it. Therefore, “language is best taught when it is being used to transmit messages, not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning” (Krashen & Terrell, 1988, p. 55).

As a teacher of novice Arabic learners, I encounter students who have no background in Arabic. Since input drives acquisition, providing my students with the required input is the most fundamental part of the lesson plan because it lays the foundation for the rest of the day’s lesson. In order to acquire the language, learners should be able to understand the input. The focus of L2 teachers should be on whatever supports comprehension. That is why visual aids, such as picture files, are important. Krashen states that the main concern for L2 educators should be whether learners have understood the message.

I begin each lesson with interpretive activities because it provides the students with the required input. As Lee and VanPatten (2003) indicate, the input should be comprehensible and meaning-bearing. However, not all input becomes intake, which is a filtered version of the input and is defined as the input that learners process and pay attention to. As recommended by Lee and VanPatten (2003), the input that I provide is slower in rate, using high-frequent vocabulary and simple syntax. For the very novice students, the input is simplified and tailored to their level so that students are able to make connections between form and meaning and increase their intake (Shrum & Glisan, 2010).

In my teaching, I provide learners with comprehensible input in a number of ways. The first warming up activity in my lesson plan is always an input-providing

activity such as a picture file or collaborative reading material. I also use Total Physical Responses (TPR) in which I connect the input with some physical movements or gestures so that students are able to make a connection between the meaning and the word. TPR also facilitates comprehension and hence increases intake. I use gestures and actions to clarify the meaning of words, for example, saying and acting out *eating, sleeping, fishing*, etc., or pointing at parts of the body or things in the classroom. Then, I ask the students to do the same so that they can relate the action with the word. It is important here to highlight the importance of using the target language while simplifying it. I have seen through my teaching experience and through observation of other language teachers that using the target language with some simplifications helps the student best.

### **Teaching the interpersonal mode of communication**

Krashen's hypothesis was criticized for its emphasis on input only and neglecting other elements. In order to supply the missing part of the puzzle, Long (1996) proposed the Interaction Hypothesis in which he argued that even though environmental factors, comprehensible input, and cognitive capacities are important for language acquisition, learners acquire the language when they are able to ask for clarification and simplification of the input within a meaningful communicative context. He stated that "environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and [...] these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during negotiation for meaning" (Long, 1996, p. 414).

According to Long (1996), during the interaction process, communicators provide both positive evidence that indicates direct understanding and is made naturally through

interaction, and negative evidence in which communicators use some form of explicit or implicit correction of meaning through comprehension checks, repetition, and clarification requests. Long indicates that “negotiation of meaning facilitates acquisition because it connects the input, internal learner capacities, particular selective attention, and output in productive ways” (Long, 1996, p. 451-452).

Thus, research indicates that in order for input to be effective, negotiation of meaning should occur (Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Long, 1996). In the light of the role of negotiation of meaning in second language acquisition, the question now is how to make it happen in the L2 classroom. The most effective way to do that, I believe, is the use of *cooperative learning* which employs students working in pairs and small groups to accomplish common goals and to help one another (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). Below are some examples of activities I conduct in class to foster interpersonal communication because students request information, ask for clarification, and practice negotiation of meaning.

**Jigsaw Sequence:** in this activity, students are first divided into groups; each group is given one section of the activity. They have to work cooperatively in their group so that they become experts on their section. Then students are labeled inside their groups, A, B, and C for example. Finally, they will regroup according to the labels (all A's together, B's together and so forth). In the new groups, students have to complete the entire activity (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). For example, if the theme of the lesson is furnishing a house, group A will be responsible for choosing the furniture of the bedroom, group B will be responsible for the kitchen, etc. After regrouping them, each group will be able to describe the entire house.

**Information gap Activities:** In this activity, one student has part of the information that the other student does not have and vice versa. Each student has to ask the other about the information they have to complete the activity (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). For example, in teaching family relationships, each student will have one of two sheets (A and B) with an image of a family tree. Some of the people in the family tree have name tags and others do not. Names that occur on sheet A do not occur on sheet B and vice versa. In addition, each student is given a list of names that do not occur in his/her sheet. They have to work together to fit the list of names into the family tree. In the list of names that they have there is a person who does not belong to the family, and does not fit in any of the spots in the family tree. Together, the two students have to find out who is the outsider.

**Interview activity:** The importance of this activity lies in the type of communication it fosters for language learning. For this activity I make sure that students have a short form to fill out so that they do something concrete with the information gathered. After the interview and/or info gap activities, I divide students into groups in which they have to report about what they have discussed in the activity (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). Lee and VanPatten provide an example of an interview activity in which learners are asked to compare their birthday experiences by asking and answering questions about the place in which they celebrate, the food they eat, and the people they celebrate with. As they interview their classmates, they fill in a chart that contains this information.

### **Teaching the presentational mode of communication**

Much of the research conducted in SLA has focused on the role of input in acquisition. Swain (1985) extended this by studying the relationship between input and output and their influence on proficiency development. She investigated several components of communicative competence such as grammatical, discourse, and sociolinguistic competence.

Swain (1985) claims that the missing part of language acquisition, after input and negotiation of meaning, is output. Swain argues that output requires two main aspects of acquiring L2. First, it provides the non-native speakers with an opportunity to “try the means of expression and see if they work” (Swain 1985, p. 249), and second, and most importantly, it shifts the speaker’s focus from processing the meaning to processing the form. In other words, output provides the learner with the ability “to move the learner from a purely semantic analysis of the language to a syntactic analysis of it” (Swain, 1985, p. 252).

For students to be able to acquire the language, they should be given opportunities to produce the language in various contexts. Producing output is referred to as the presentational mode, the third of the three modes of communication. Activities that require learners to produce the language shift the students’ focus from processing the meaning to processing the form. In the final section of my lesson plan, students are asked to report about what they have learned from their classmates in the interview or information gap activity. In order to foster more output in class, I follow a project-based approach. Each semester, students are required to perform a skit that demonstrates their

interpersonal skills. Some lesson plans objectives are writing an advertisement, designing a booklet or giving a news report.

Table 1 describes how I design the lesson plan according to the three modes of communication.

Table 1

*Guidelines for lesson planning according to the three modes of communication*

Task	Objective	Examples
Presentation of vocabulary	Providing students with the required comprehensible input that is needed for language acquisition	Picture File, Total Physical Response , Authentic reading and listening materials
Activation of vocabulary	Providing the students with the opportunity to engage in interpersonal communication, through a process of expression, interpretation and negotiation of meaning.	Interview activities Information gap activity
Feedback	Providing students with opportunities to produce the language in the presentational mode	Reporting about a classmate Writing about oneself (home assignment)

I have shown how the three modes of communication – presentational, interpersonal and interpretive – can be applied in the second language classroom.

Working in the interpretive mode provides the students with the required input. Engaging in interpersonal communication provides the students with the opportunity to negotiate meaning, and finally, developing the presentational mode provides the student with the ability to form comprehensible output which in turn contributes to language acquisition.

It is important to focus in the classroom on the input-output relationship as for example when we use reading comprehension to improve the students' writing skills.

These three modes of communication should be synthesized in every lesson plan. Communicative language teaching is accomplished through Task-Based Activities or TBA (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandelle, 2001). The term *task* is either a classroom activity or an exercise that provides a mechanism for enforcing interaction in the classroom and focuses on meaning exchange, or a language learning goal that requires comprehension and/or production of the target language (Ballman et al., 2001). Ballman et al. state that there are three main characteristics of TBA. The first feature of TBA is that it is learner-centered. This means that it results in and from the interaction between students. The second is that it focuses on the meaningful exchange of information. The third is that TBA will "guide participants through a series of predetermined steps that culminate in a *concrete representation* of the gathered information" (Ballman et al., 2001, p. 77). Below, I will explain how I use TBAs in designing my lesson plans.

To implement TBAs while designing my lesson plans, I organize activities that give students the opportunity to be active participants in the learning process through pair and group activities that simulate real-life situations. I plan my lessons according to main communicative themes (e.g., food, hobbies, family, etc.). So the first step of lesson planning is *identifying the communicative goal* or the theme. The goal is best identified when a concrete question can be answered (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). So, for example, if we speak about food we can ask "what are the eating habits of the students?" Having established the theme of the lesson plan, I make sure that students understand the goal of

the activity, its relation to the unit/theme of the lesson, and how they can use it in real life (Ballman et al., 2001).

As I mentioned earlier, input-providing is a key component. This means that students should be provided with input in the very first activity so that they can refresh their memories regarding the vocabulary and the grammar they need to perform the activity (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001). It is important to notice that, even though the majority of the lesson plan should be learner-centered, this specific activity is usually teacher-fronted. Thus, highlighting the importance of learner-centered activity does not deny the importance of teacher-fronted activity. According to Ballman et al. “teacher-centered activities are essential because it is the teacher who provides input, thereby modeling what the language means, how it sounds, and how it is used. In addition, the teacher modifies language to make it comprehensible” (Ballman et al., 2001, p. 82).

The second step is to design tasks that require information exchange regarding the theme of the lesson such as sharing information with others for comparison or making an oral report. For example, if the goal of the activity is to speak about food and diet, students can interview each other about their eating habits, how, where and what they usually eat for their daily meals or share information with others for comparative purposes or make an oral report. This fulfills the requirement of being learner-centered and meaning-focused. In the following activity, in groups of four, they will provide a report about their eating habits of the group members by filling in a chart. Thus, they will have a *concrete representation* of the gathered information. Finally, I have a follow-up activity to make sure that students are able to perform the required activity. Tasks should



also be designed to build on one another incrementally to achieve a culminating task at the end of class as in the model: “Task A + Task B + Task C → Culminating Task” (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001, p. 83).

Task-Based Activities provide students with comprehensible meaning-bearing input; they make students active participants in the learning process and provide opportunities for expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning. Furthermore, TBA help the students to produce comprehensible output. All of these factors contribute to language acquisition as discussed in the previous section.

### **Empowering the three modes of communication through CALL**

Technology has become essential in the language classroom. As Blake (2013) explains, even though it is very unlikely that technology can replace language teachers, “teachers who use technology will probably replace teachers who do not” (p. 14). There are many reasons why this statement is a reality for teachers. In the coming part, I will explain why I believe teachers should use technology in the language classroom.

One of the most important reasons for using Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is increasing the learner’s contact time with the L2. Blake (2013) also explains that non-romance languages need from 700 to 1,200 hours of full-time instructions to achieve functional proficiency. P. Stevens (2006) points out that the Foreign Service Institute has listed Arabic as a difficult language. In order to achieve high-level proficiency, learners need 2,400 of contact hours with the language. Thus, classroom time, even in four years, is not sufficient to obtain functional fluency and there needs to be another way to increase contact with the target language outside the

classroom. Educators can increase learners' contact with the target language through the use of technology.

Another important reason we should use CALL techniques is that technology is motivational. Young learners find it interesting; they are familiar with chat tools and social communication websites, and they employ them in their everyday lives. (V. Stevens, 2006). But those are not the only reasons; as Young's, Ducate, and Arnold (2011) explain, learners are motivated when they are challenged, when they have clear goals, when they implement varying teaching methods, and when they receive appropriate constructive feedback. All of these features can be facilitated through the use of technology.

Furthermore, technology facilitates language acquisition. It can enhance input, provide learners with opportunity to negotiate meaning, and push learners' to produce output. As I discussed, language acquisition begins with input. Technology provides learners and teachers with easy access to myriad sources of authentic input of text genres in all language domains. The internet provides learners with authentic input in the target language, including audio and video materials for listening and pronunciation practices. As I stated before, even though it is not sufficient (Swain, 1985), comprehensible input (Krashen & Terrell, 1988) is necessary for language acquisition. Technology does not only provide learners with input, but it also provides educators with tools to make texts more comprehensible. *Input enhancement* (Young's, Ducate, & Arnold, 2011) includes the use of typographic techniques (e.g. size, italicizing, etc.) and phonological techniques, (e.g. stress, volume, repetition, etc.) in order to direct learners' attention to specific features of the text.

Young's, Ducate, and Arnold (2011) explain also that CALL can enhance *negotiation of meaning*, another important aspect of language acquisition. As Long (1996) shows in his *Interaction Hypothesis*, negotiation of meaning promotes acquisition. Negotiation of meaning refers to modifications that speakers make to their speech to understand and to be understood by the addressee. Obviously, technology provides learners with excellent opportunities to negotiate the meaning. Research shows that negotiation of meaning occurs in computer-mediated communication (CMC) more frequently than in face-to-face communication (Young's, et al., 2011). In CMC, learners are provided with valuable feedback when they are communicating with fluent speakers of the target language (Guth & Helm, 2011; Yang, Chen, & Huang, 2014; Young's, et al., 2011).

Additionally, technology pushes output. As I discussed before, when learners produce the language, that process shifts their focus from the semantic aspects of the text to its syntactic features (Swain, 1985). Thus, learners should be given the opportunity to produce meaningful output. Krashen explains *the monitor* as a strategy that L2 speakers use when they have the time to focus on the form, as while writing for example. Once they know the rule, learners may be able to use it if they have the time for planning and editing. Young's, Ducate, and Arnold (2011) explain that computer-mediated communication (CMC) provides learners with the opportunity to plan and edit their writing output even during interpersonal synchronous communication. The Internet is an excellent platform for presentational activities. Learners can use wikis, blogs (Elola & Oskoz, 2011), and social communication websites (Young's et al., 2011) to post their

articles and videos and receive direct authentic feedback from professional speakers of the target language (Young's, et al., 2011).

CALL also meets learners' different needs. Individualized CALL materials allow learners to work at their own rate, they can be adapted to students' different styles of learning, they increase learners' autonomy, and they give learners the opportunity for self-evaluation. Activities that promote learner autonomy include using language learning software, using corpus data, using collaborative writing tools such as wikis, using CMC, and many others (Young's, Ducate, & Arnold, 2011).

Learners have different learning styles and, thus, different needs. Those learning styles include visual, verbal, logical, kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalist; CALL can provide each learner with individualized tools that meet each style of learning. Verbal/linguistic learners will enjoy reading authentic material, logical learners can use technology to make mind maps and graphic organizers, and visual learners can benefit from the visually enhanced software programs, watch/create movies and make use of visually interactive programs (Young's, Ducate, & Arnold, 2011).

Arnold and Ducate (2011) confirm that CALL can "enhance instruction by making learning more interesting, motivating, current, authentic, and creative, and ...improve student-teacher and student-student interaction" (p. 5). In the following section, I will explain how I employ technology in the classroom to enhance learners' skills in accordance with my teaching philosophy. I will focus on using technology to build language proficiency in different modes of communication, interpretive, presentational and interpersonal. Further attention is given to the interpersonal mode in my annotated bibliography on CMC in this portfolio.

### **Using technology to build learners' interpretive skills**

The interpretive mode is “a vehicle for language acquisition” (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 181). Technology provides learners with a valuable source of audio, printed and video text. As I mentioned, technology also makes input more comprehensible whether through reading material or listening material. Young's, Ducate, and Arnold (2011) explain that CALL provides ways of *input enhancement* that make input more comprehensible and thus, CALL increases learners' intake (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). Young's et al. explain that input enhancement includes “typographic (e.g. font size and color) or phonological techniques (e.g. stress, volume) to highlight specific features of a text” (Young's et al., 2011, p. 27). In this section, I will illustrate how I use CALL to enhance input of both reading and listening materials.

As for listening material, a basic implication of CALL is the use of authentic videos. Robin (2011) explains that, unlike the other language domains of reading, speaking and writing, listening comprehension has long been enhanced by the use of technology. Learners practiced listening through records, tapes, movies, and radio broadcasts as early as the 1940's. Videos are not only a valuable source of linguistic input, but also allow learners' to come into contact with other features of texts. As Samy (2006) explains, videos allow learners to experience the “suprasegmental features of the language, such as tone, speed, rhythm, intonation and stress” (p. 264). Furthermore, it gives them information about the culture of interaction between people of the target language such as “posture, eye contact, body language, distance between speakers, gestures, motions, and other indexical clues” (Samy, 2006, p. 264).

Through the use of Multimedia, learners not only gain easy access to authentic listening texts, but are also able to repeat them, make use of non-verbal cues, and decrease their speed (Young's, Ducate and Arnold, 2011). Robin (2011) claims that the current web-based technology provides learners with a huge corpus of texts on any designated topic. It also provides access to written scripts of many of these listening materials. In addition, it allows for speed modification. Furthermore, it allows for converting text files into audio through text-to-speech techniques.

One of the major implications of technology that enhances listening comprehension is adding transcripts or captions. Samy (2006) explains that learners forget easily what is in the film content, and might not be able to follow. By combining text with video, we gain the benefits of both approaches. Robin (2011) also states that using either transcripts (when content texts are separated from the video) or in-screen caption “increase[s] immediate comprehension and recall, both of content and vocabulary” (Robin, 2011, p. 99). One of the strategies I look forward to use in the classroom is giving a web-based assignment in which learners watch a video, juxtapose it to the script, and find the new vocabulary and answer comprehension questions (Samy, 2006).

Another important feature that current technology provides is the control of the speed of delivery. Young's, Ducate, and Arnold (2011) state that CALL materials “allow learners to progress at their own rates of learning” (Young's et al., 2011, p. 34). Educational software programs can enhance input (Samy, 2006). For example, a video control button can repeat a specific segment of the video automatically, can provide script for the video, and can control the pace of speaking.

As for reading material, CALL is not just about the use of internet to gain access to reading texts. According to Chun (2011), CALL applications include electronic dictionaries, annotating tools, word-recognition tools, and corpus linguistics tools. According to Chun, computer-assisted reading may be helpful in increasing word-recognition speed for intermediate learners, although it did not prove to be as efficient with beginners as it was for more advanced learners.

### **Using technology to boost interpersonal skills**

The basis of this approach is Long's interaction hypothesis that states that learners acquire language when they receive feedback from interlocutors during interaction. Grass (2006 as cited in Abrams, 2011) explains that during interaction with more advanced speakers, learners receive negative evidence, such as a request for clarification that alerts them to their mistakes. González-Lloret (2003 as cited in Young's, Ducate, & Arnold, 2011) states that learners' opportunity to negotiate meaning during CMC was significantly more frequent than in face-to-face communication.

Internet-mediated intercultural foreign language education (ICFLE) (Thorne, 2006) is an important application of CMC. Thorne (2006) argues that ICFLE does not only enhance learners' linguistic development, but also increases their information about pragmatics of target language and increases their cultural sensitivity as the process usually includes "extended, productive, and ultimately meaningful intercultural dialogue" (p. 3). Thorne explains that there are different models of ICFLE including *telecollaboration* and *tandem learning*.

Telecollaboration is usually based on institutionalized partnership between two classrooms each of which is learning the language of the other (Thorne, 2006). Activities

in telecollaboration can include pair work, small-group work and whole-class exchange monitored and moderated by teachers of both classes. Another model of ICFLE is tandem learning which is non-institutional and requires more autonomy from the learner. Other ICFLE learning configurations include collaboration with expert speakers to speak about target culture and language in the classroom in addition to the creation of non-educational discussion forum that aims at integrating learners with the target language communities (Thorne, 2006).

A practical model of ICFLE is the *Cultura* project (Cultura Exchanges Site, n.d.), in which students fill out questionnaires in their L1 and compare their result with foreign peers (Guth & Helm, 2011). More details about learning culture through CMC will be offered in a separate annotated bibliography. The use of CMC in Arabic language is “underdeveloped but potentially significant,” says V. Stevens (2006, p. 253) who recommends more focus in the use of technology in the Arabic language classroom. Further investigation of CMC research in Arabic language classroom needs to be conducted.

### **Using CALL to enhance learners’ output**

Elola and Oskoz (2011) explain two applications of CALL that focus on the acquisition of the presentational mode: the use of blogs and wikis. A blog is an “online travel journal in which a writer or a group of writers could post their thoughts and ideas in chronological order” (p. 174). As Elola and Oskoz explain, blogs have various advantages when used to practice writing. Blogs are usually provided with commenting feature that allows the audience to comment and provide feedback for the writer. In addition, state Elola and Oskoz, when learners self-publish, they develop a sense of



ownership and think carefully about the written product. As research indicates (Sun, 2010), blogging also helps learners monitor their own writing and promotes positive attitude towards language learning. Furthermore, blogging has been widely used in Egypt for political, educational, religious, and literary purpose. It has had a great influence in the revolution in Egypt (Hofheinz, 2011). Thus, Egyptian EFL learners are already familiar with it as many of them use it for various reason, and learners of Arabic language will also benefit from the rich cultural content of Egyptian blogs and the active participation of Egyptian bloggers (Hofheinz, 2011).

A number of blogging websites can be found, probably the most famous of which is <https://www.blogger.com> (Blogger, n.d.) which is controlled by Google Inc. Learners need a Google account to make their own blog. Once students have a blog, the teacher can ask them to post their homework on it, and Blogger will provide an online forum in which learners and others can comment on the post.

Another application of writing is the use of wikis. Wikis are defined as “collaborative web-based environments that potentially any individual can edit” (Elola & Oskoz, 2011, p. 175). Wikis (e.g. Free Wiki Space, n.d.) allow teacher to post collaborative writing projects in which multiple students collaborate in writing on one topic. Therefore, students can be involved in discussion of different topics and develop their writing skill through various writing activities. Students can work in groups or individually, they can create their own projects, and then assign tasks to members of their group.

Educational software can provide learners with opportunities to practice with their oral output. Samy (2006) provides an example of *Arabic for communication* application

(Rammuny, 2003, as cited in Samy, 2006) in which learners are given text prompts, and they are asked to record a spoken response to these prompts. The prompts include simulated conversation dialogues of common situations such as booking a room. The recordings are sent to the teacher, who then gives student feedback. I look forward for using similar applications in the classroom. Currently, I have a weekly reading aloud activity. In order to check my students' pronunciation, I ask them to record a passage every week and send the audio recording as an attachment to me in an email so that I can give them individualized feedback.

CALL provides language learners with a wide variety of materials to enhance language acquisition that I would like to use to enhance the learning environment. As Young's et al. (2011) concisely put it, CALL provides learners with "drill exercise, Internet-based tasks ..., software to support reading, writing, listening, and pronunciation, online distant-learning programs, synchronous and asynchronous tools which enable learners to communicate with other others orally or in writing ... and a virtual learning environment" (p. 24).

### **The application of sociocultural perspective**

Since I adhere to a theory-based method of teaching, I plan some of my lessons with a sociocultural perspective (Vygotsky, 1978). The theoretical background of sociocultural theory is based on the fact that we use physical tools to manipulate the surrounding environment as, for example, when humans use a shovel to dig a hole or a computer to build software. Similarly, Vygotsky states, humans use symbolic tools to mediate thinking. Vygotsky explains that any psychological tool is sociocultural in origin (Vygotsky, 1978). In other words, psychological tools that humans use to mediate

thinking originate through interaction with surrounding environment. According to Vygotsky, psychological tools can be gestures, graphs, mathematical symbols, blue prints, or speech. Human beings use these psychological tools to mediate thinking.

Sociocultural theory (SCT) states that psychological tools are signs that are used internally as artificial stimuli. They can have no direct relation to the meaning as in mathematical symbols or letters. Yet, such signs are developed through rational links that were built in the early stages of development. These signs are used together to develop a concept. For example, the concept of division in mathematics can be developed through visual concrete experiences, such as placing the number of apples over the number of children. Yet, in the course of development the image of dividing apples retreats to the back of mind and the *concept* remains.

That theory constitutes the origin of concept-based instruction (Gal'perin, 1992). In concept-based instructions materials, such as graphs, and verbalization activities are used to push the internalization of concepts (see Culture artifact for farther illustration of concept-based instruction).

Vygotsky shows that there are two levels of development: the actual development level that shows what a subject has already internalized and, most importantly, the potential level of development which represents the skills that have not been internalized yet. The subject's potential level of development can be identified by offering him/her some help. The distance between what the subject can do *without* help (which has been internalized) and what the subject can do with help is his/her Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

As Young's, Ducate, & Arnold (2011) explain, "learning occurs when learners work together with a caregiver who provides an environment and tools, or scaffolding, for the learner until an action can be accomplished alone" (p. 32). The help that the mediator gives to the subject is called *scaffolding*. The relationship between the zone of actual development and the zone of proximal development is dynamic. This is to say that, what today is proximal, through the activity and scaffolding, tomorrow can be actual. That is why the assessment of development should also be dynamic. In my philosophy of teaching I believe teachers should employ dynamic assessment to achieve a better evaluation of the learners' performance. For further explanation of dynamic assessment see my language artifact.

### **Conclusion**

In this section I highlighted how I apply theory-based and research-grounded teaching of second language. The theories of Krashen, (Krashen & Terrell, 1988), Long (1996), and Swain (1985) provide the background of communicative language teaching. Inspired by this approach, I try to adhere to the three modes of communication. I integrate activities that provide learners with input, I engage learners in interpersonal communication activities, and I provide learners with opportunities to produce output in several ways. I also highlighted the use of technology to support these three modes of communication. I also illustrated two applications of SCT in the classroom, namely concept-based instruction and dynamic assessment. More illustration of SCT will be provided in my cultural and language artifacts.

### **Professional Development through Observation**

In this section, I am going to show how I have grown as a teacher through observation of other teachers in the language classroom and in other fields as well. I will also offer some reflection of my own teaching. I will show what I have learned about the communicative approach of teaching language through observations of other teachers. I will illustrate some challenging situations that occurred in the classroom, and how I see teachers should deal with them. Through my observations of other teachers, and through my self-reflection on my teaching experience, I came to the conclusion that dynamic classroom has a vital role in language teaching.

The communicative approach of language teaching is activity-based. It is very important to have a warm-up activity because it refreshes the use of the vocabulary in the students' minds. In one of the classes I observed, the instructor had a very good lesson plan in which the students had to make a call to book a flight ticket to visit the country of the target language. The instructor began by distributing a handout which looked like a tourist booklet that tells about the attractions in this country. In their groups, students had to decide which place they want to go, and, then, they had to call the instructor for reservation. The class was very dynamic and students were communicating in the target language. Yet, there was a pair of students who were not able to participate at all. The instructor had to go to them and try to encourage them to participate. I think the problem of this lesson plan was the lack of warm-up activities. To improve this lesson plan, I suggest that the teacher would give an introductory activity in which he would remind the students of some expressions and vocabulary that they could use. Thus, they would be able to participate even if they have not done much reading before class.

Another important note on the task-based approach, which is also related to the dynamic classroom, is the duration of each activity. Ideally, each activity will last for 5 to 15 minutes. Sometimes instructors believe they have to give an activity more time, as for example in a whole-class interview activity. In this case I suggest that the instructor divide the activity into stages. In the previous example, the students were required to make a call, book a flight ticket, and to reserve a hotel room in the same activity. I think it would be better if the instructor divided this activity into two activities so that learners would not feel stressed. In addition, the instructor would have a better opportunity to follow up with them.

Having a TA in the class is a plus; TAs may make the class more dynamic, but only if the instructor is able to benefit of him/her. In one of the classes I attended, the TA came late and the instructor did not talk to her at all. In fact, I would not have known that she is a TA unless the instructor told me. During the group activity she got stuck with one group, she spoke with them in English and did not seem very encouraging. In another class, however, the instructor made very good use of the TA. It was quite clear that they discussed the lesson plan before class. In the reporting activity, the class was divided into two groups one with the instructor and one with the TA and they were able to provide useful feedback to the students.

Another commonly-used teaching technique is having a teaching partner. In one of my classes, I decided to have a teaching partner. I thought that in this way, I offer my students an opportunity to listen to another accent and make the class more dynamic. In order to ensure a successful class, I divided the lesson plan with my partner. I was in charge of some activities and she was in charge of others. This was not a good idea,

because the class looked segmented and there was no flow in the ideas. In one of the classes I observed, the two teachers were acting as one unit. They were participating in the discussion, and the class was very fluid and dynamic. I think teaching with a partner can be successful if the two teachers have good relationship and total agreement on the topic of class. Dividing the lesson plan is fine, as long as transitions are done smoothly. However, class will be more dynamic if the two teachers support each other seamlessly within the same activity.

Instructors have to use the target language in the classroom as much as possible. On the other hand, it is also the responsibility of the teacher to ensure that their students do not feel isolated or have a high level of anxiety. Negative emotions such as fear or embarrassment raises the students affective filter and, hence, may hinder acquisition. Teachers are in charge of keeping balance between sticking to the target language, which might be scary for novice learners who did not attend an L2 class before, and in the same time ensure a low level of anxiety in the classroom. In one of the classes I have seen, the instructor kept speaking in the target language to one student who seemed lost and did not know what to do. Even though the instructor was trying to help, and spent so much time explaining to the student, she wasted some precious class time and increased the student anxiety. Finally, the teacher had to explain the instructions in English. I see in the case of novice student who encounter high anxiety situation, little use of the English in this specific situation will ease their anxiety, lower their affective filter, and make the classroom more dynamic.

Once I observed a class in which the teacher asked the students to repeat after her. I understand the role of output in fostering acquisition as it shifts the learners' focus from

processing the meaning to processing the form. However, repeating after the teacher looked awkward since it was out of a context. There was no situation in which students are able to use the word they were repeating. In my classes, sometimes I introduce a new expression or a less-common structure, and I feel it will be good if the students repeat it first before using it in an activity. I write the expression in the whiteboard and ask them to try to read it. Naturally, many students try to read it in the same time. I begin repeating it with them, and, again naturally, almost all students repeat it with me, *not after me*, out of curiosity. In other words, to make the class more dynamic and encourage students to produce the target language, teachers have to develop curiosity instead of asking students to repeat after him/her.

One other thing that I noticed through participation is that the use of pauses and its influence on the dynamic classroom. Instructors should make a good use of pauses in the classroom. Sometimes the instructor decides to make a pause to foster more participation in the class or to give the students time to reflect. In other times, pauses look like stalling for time. One of the classes I have attended the instructor made so long pauses. I was able to count at least one minute during which students were staring at the instructor silently and did not know what to say. While it was clear to me that instructor was trying to foster student reflection, these long pauses made the class less dynamic.

I have seen through my observation that the dynamic class ensures more involvement of students, and thus more engagement in the activities, which, in turn, fosters acquisition. It is also motivating; students enjoy the class more and do not view class attendance and participation as an additional load. As I stated earlier, if the students



do not have negative emotions towards the class, the influence of their affective filter will be less and this also is an important key for language acquisition.

### **Self-Assessment Report: Analysis and Reflection of Teaching Video**

This section is a reflection on a video recording of my teaching that took place on the 17<sup>th</sup> of September, 2014. The course I was teaching in this video was ARBC 1010, the beginner course of Arabic at USU. While watching the video, I was curious to see how I apply my teaching philosophy. As I stated in my TPS, I apply a task-based approach to teaching that integrates the three modes of communication: interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational. In task-based teaching, the teacher organizes activities based on a major communicative goal for each lesson plan. All activities in this lesson plan should be related to, and guide students towards, this communicative goal. These activities should work on different modes of communication. In addition, the majority of activities should be student-centered (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001). In my reflection on the video, I will evaluate whether I am putting these concepts into practice.

The aim of this lesson plan is for students to be able to take an inventory of how many of various items there are in the classroom (pens, books, notebooks, bags, etc.). Before class, students were required to read aloud a worksheet that contains numbers in Arabic, and basic vocabulary of class items, and their plurals. They were asked to record their reading aloud and upload the file to Canvas. In class, the first activity I did was asking them to repeat the numbers with me. I tried to avoid the repeat-after-me style which reminds me of the authority of the teacher. I believe the repeat-after-me is not very effective because it is not contextualized and highlights the authority of the teacher, an aspect of the ALM method (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001) Rather, I

repeated the numbers by myself a couple of times. After the first time, some students began to say them with me without prompting. They were just exploring the vocabulary with me. The third time, we all were repeating the numbers together. This gave them, I believe, the sense that we are exploring the vocabulary together rather than listening and repeating. In order to make sure they internalized the numbers, before moving to the next step, I asked them to repeat the numbers in different sequences. Instead of 1, 2, 3, they say, “1, 3, 5...”and then “... 2, 4, 6 ...” to reinforce the numbers in different ways.

The main vocabulary was about items in class. I used a picture file as a reminder. I showed the students pictures of certain classroom items, e.g., pen, book, notebook, and bags, in addition to the words: *teacher* and *student*. I asked them what the picture was. They had to answer collectively. Then I showed them different pictures on the screen, each assigned with a number. I asked them, “Where is the bag? Where is the pen? etc.”, and they had to call the number. Then I changed the location of the items on the screen; each item had a different number, and we played again. The aim of this activity was to make sure students know the needed vocabulary for the lesson plan goal and activate their schemata. Upon watching the video, I believe this activity was successful.

Then I used a card game. In this game, each pair of students had one set of cards on their desks, and I called on random cards. The students were asked to pick up the card I call; the one who picked the card faster was the winner. We played this game first with pictures, and second with written words. At the end students reported how many cards each of them ‘got’.

The aim of this game is to help them remember the words through a comprehension activity requiring only non-linguistic response. It also reinforced numbers at the end, as they had to report how many cards they collected.

Upon watching the video, I found that students really got into the card game activity and participated. When I repeated the activity, students seemed happy to do it again. During the activity, I saw a pair of students picking up the wrong cards. I asked them to raise the cards to make sure they picked the right card. During the game, one student arrived late, I tried to plug him right in and wasted no time getting him caught up.

After refreshing their memory about classroom vocabulary and numbers, it was time to synthesize them. Through a picture file, they needed to say how many pens, how many bags, etc., they saw in the screen. They were following and responding to my picture prompts. It was necessary to teach some grammar points here, in support of communication. They had to learn that in Arabic, the number 1 comes after the noun; when it's 2, you don't say 2; just use the dual form! When it's 3 or more, you use the numeral before the noun. In order to make it less complicated, I did not spend much time speaking about the feminine dual form vs. the masculine dual form. However, I made sure that *I* pronounced the right form. I tolerated mixing the gender during the activity because it was not the focus of the day.

After studying the plural, it was time to focus on writing skills. In the worksheet they had, they were asked to write the plural of the listed words. I wrote the words with them and made sure they wrote them correctly. Even though the writing activity was teacher-centered, it was necessary at this stage. I felt they were engaged and that they

were learning. After writing each word on the whiteboard, modeling the strokes/lines of the Arabic letters, I inspected their sheets to make sure their writing was readable.

I have to pay attention *not to talk to the whiteboard* while writing. This sometimes seems awkward. Rather, I need to wait until I finish writing the word, turn back to the learners and address them. This was a mistake I observed upon watching the video, and I will try to avoid it in the future.

The final activity was conducted in steps. In the first step they had to learn how to say “how many ..... do you have?” I illustrated it in a picture file. Second, I gave a half-sheet to each student to record how many they and various classmates have of certain items. They had to fill out for self, then ask 3 different classmates in a group. They had to calculate how many class items in the groups. Finally, as a whole class activity, I compiled a class inventory.

I did not expect having more than twenty of any particular item. There were more than twenty of some items and students were not able to say them. Next time I will do this activity after they learn how to count to 100 to make sure they have enough vocabulary to conduct the activity.

The goal of the lesson plan was accomplished smoothly. It was possible only through communicating with each other and negotiating the meaning. All of the activities were related to the goal, and involved different modes of communication.

**CULTURE ARTIFACT**

Bringing code-switching to the Arabic language classroom:

A concept-based approach

### **Introduction and Reflection**

I studied at Al-Azhar University in Egypt which is known for its excellence in the study of Classical Arabic. Because of this reputation, there was a large number of international students, whose mother tongue is not Arabic, and who came particularly to study Arabic as a second language, and I had many friends among them. Many of my international friends achieved a high level of proficiency in standard Arabic; yet, they would usually frown upon those who use the vernacular form with them, as they were taught that the Egyptian vernacular is a distorted version of standard Arabic.

On the other hand, when I started teaching Arabic as a second language at Al-Sawy Cultural Wheel, a famous cultural center in Egypt, many of my students asked me to stick to the most communicative form of Arabic, the Egyptian vernacular. Most of them were employees in international companies who worked in Egypt and whose aim was to learn functional Arabic to be able to communicate with co-workers and run everyday errands. In fact one of my former students asked me to write Arabic in Latin letters all the time, as he had no interest in writing and reading Arabic!

As a native speaker of Arabic, I have never had a problem with language duality. It has never been problematic for me to use any code of Arabic, choose a code that fits a specific situation, or switch between codes to convey specific message. For me, the colloquial and the standard were another representation of the richness and flexibility of this language. However, because of those two contradicting experiences that I mentioned above, I noticed that there is a gap between the two forms of Arabic, the standard and the vernacular. This gap is most apparent to non-native speakers of Arabic.

With the growing emphasis on communication in research in second language teaching, the duality of Arabic language has gained a huge focus on research. Many learners would ask which code should we learn and why? And many researchers would try to answer the question of which form to teach and whether they should be taught separately or in parallel. However, limited research, I believe, have been done on how to mix and shift smoothly between those two codes. In this artifact, I attempt to contribute to the running debate on teaching language duality by highlighting teaching code-switching. I believe code-switching is an important linguistic device that manifests the dialectic relationship between Arabic codes, and, thus, it certainly should be brought to the classroom.



Bringing Code-Switching to the Arabic Language Classroom:  
A Concept-Based Approach

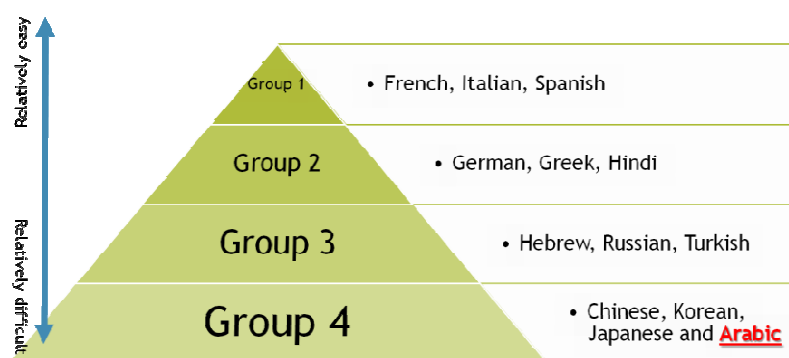
Abstract

The classical view of research in diglossia tends to view Standard Arabic (SA) as a formal and/or written variety, while, Dialectical Arabic (DA) is usually seen as a colloquial, informal, and spoken variety. This view assumed the existence of two separate codes and does not account for the occurrence of switching between codes within the same discourse. However, it has been shown through research that *both* codes are used by native speakers in formal *and* informal situations, as well as in written *and* spoken discourse. The occurrence of code-switching (CS) in different types of spoken and written discourse in Arabic constitutes a challenge for learners and educators of Arabic as a foreign language. CS is used by native speakers of Arabic as a conceptually-framed linguistic device. Native speakers switch codes to convey specific concepts including importance, sophistication, seriousness, prestige, accessibility, and identity (Albirini, 2011). However, only limited literature has been carried out about the pedagogical implication of CS in the classroom. In this artifact, I illustrate the use of concept-based instruction to teach CS to advanced Arabic students. I draw upon the corpus-informed data of Albirini (2011) on the social motivations behind CS and use the model of Thorne, Reinhardt, and Golombek (2008) to teach these concepts in the classroom. The model includes a three-stage process: orienting basis, conceptual materialization, and individual and group verbalization activities. Sample activities are described in detail.

*Key words:* Diglossia, Code-Choice, Code-Switching, Code-Mixing, Modern Standard Arabic, Dialectical Arabic, Colloquial Arabic, Concept-Based Instruction

## Introduction: Diglossia and Code-Switching

The American Foreign Service has categorized languages in terms of perceived learning difficulty into four categories, with category one being the easiest to learn and category four the most difficult to learn (P. Stevens, 2007). Arabic is classified as a group-four language, meaning it is one of the most difficult-to-learn languages in the world (Figure 1).



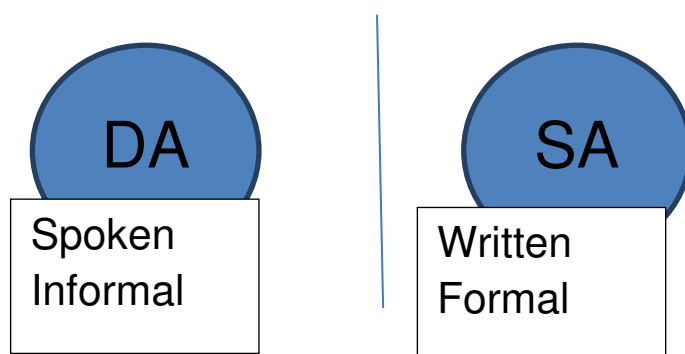
*Figure 1.* Classification of language learning difficulty (Adapted from P. Stevens, 2007)

This difficulty is attributed to a number of factors including psychological, pedagogical, structural and sociolinguistic factors (P. Steven, 2007).

One of the important factors as shown by P. Stevens is diglossia. Ferguson (1996) defines diglossia as “a relatively stable language situation in which ... there is a very divergent, highly codified ... superposed variety” (Ferguson, 1959, as cited in Ferguson, 1996, p. 53) that coexists with the primary dialects of the language. In a diglossic community, there is a Highly-valued variety (H) and Low variety (L). Ideally, within the language community H is learned in schools and used in formal situations and written

forms, while L is used as a natively-acquired variety in every day conversation. Even though this view is not a precise description of the situation of Arabic, as I will discuss, it is still valid to describe the Arabic language as a diglossic language with two poles/varieties, namely Standard Arabic (SA) as the H variety and vernacular Arabic or Dialectal Arabic (DA) as the L variety. What is important is that, according to Ferguson (1996), in diglossia, language varieties are *contextually allocated*.

A classical point of view is to think about diglossia in terms of written form versus spoken form. El Essawi (2006) assumes that “learners of Arabic as a foreign language can *only* depend on written texts as a source of input needed to develop their writing skills” (p. 179, emphasis added). Another view of diglossia is to think about it in terms of formality versus informality, or classical versus modern. Having this concept in mind, the difference between SA and DA is “somewhat analogous to learning the English of Chaucer (primarily through writing and formal spoken situation) *without it ever* being reinforced in ordinary everyday speech; while at the same time learning spoken everyday English *without it ever* being reinforced through writing” (P. Stevens, 2006, p. 55, emphasis added). In both of these views, SA and DA are viewed dichotomously (Figure. 2) with firm lines drawn between the two codes.



*Figure 2.* A dichotomous model of the relationship between SA and DA

Both assumptions limit the use of each code to one type of discourse. However, in my opinion, neither of the two views succeeds in grasping the full power of the dialectic unity between the two codes. It has been shown in research that native speakers use SA in spoken situation such as religious sermons, political speeches and even soccer commentary (Albirini, 2011). Bassiouney (2010) shows how SA is used in talk-shows to assure the speakers' identity. Amin (2013) and Ibrahim (2010) show some examples in which speaker use DA in written form. Ibrahim presents CS cases in the print media where DA in written form is used in various levels. Some newspapers used DA exclusively for headlines, others mix between the codes. Ramsay (2013) shows that both SA and DA are used in Egyptian blogs and computer-mediated communication. He claims that SA is used in educational blogs while DA is usually used by political activists' blogs.

As for the formality/informality dichotomy, Wilmsen (2006) reports the use of vernacular Arabic during a number of events in the United Nation as well as other highly formal conferences. Wilmsen comes to the conclusion that "to work as interpreters,

graduates of Arabic programs must be able to understand and produce both the formal declamatory variety and a spoken vernacular” (Wilmsen, 2006, p. 129). Bassiouney (2011) and Albirini (2011) report cases of CS to the vernacular in religious sermons. All of this indicates that it is not a matter of formality and thus, Ferguson’s model of diglossia needs careful consideration when applied to the case of Arabic language.

When revisiting the concept of diglossia, Ferguson (1996) does acknowledge the existence of dialectically highly diverse language. He states that his original intention when he introduced the term diglossia was to describe a *clear case*, a case that is “clearly identifiable, but not unique, i.e. that had many examples around the world” (p. 50). This does not mean that there are not any cases in which there is a variation or a continuum between the H and the L. That is to say, according to Ferguson, there are a number of cases or situations of diglossia. One case is the standard-with-dialect case in which there is a standard variety of a language that coexists with another dialectical variation. Another case is a creole continuum in which there is a range of variation between the H and the L codes. Thus, Ferguson, in fact, did not intend to describe the case of Arabic in particular. What he really meant to do was to offer a taxonomy in which a “clear case fits somewhere in a multidimensional classification that includes a wide variety of situations” (p. 54). The case of Arabic, however, is more complicated than that.

Britto (1986, as cited in Ferguson, 1996) states that, in Arabic, H and L are optimally distant but not super-optimally distant as it the case in Spanish and Guarataí or sub-optimally as in formal-informal English. Badawi (1973) explains that instead of speaking of two distinctive codes, namely the standard and the dialect, we should define what he calls the *linguistic levels*. Badawi explains that what distinguishes each level

from the other is the proportion of standard feature in each level. The levels range within the continuum of two poles: *fuS-Haa al-turaath* (the classical standards), which refers to the pure use of SA, and *‘aamiyat al-’ummeen* (the colloquial of the illiterate), which refers to the pure use of DA. Even though Badawi does not speak explicitly about CS, he illustrates that mixing codes occurs in different levels at various proportion. For example, when explaining phonological features of the third level, *‘aamiyat al-muthaqafeen* (the colloquial of the cultured people in Egypt) he states that words with the /q/ sound, a distinctive phoneme of Standard Arabic, are pronounced *half of the time* in the Cairene glottal stop alternate /ʔ/ (Badawi, 1973). I argue that what really distinguishes the different linguistic levels is the proportion of CS within the same linguistic level. In Badawi’s *fuS-Haa al-turaath*(classical standards) CS is very limited or does not occur at all, while in the lower levels, CS occurs at various proportions.

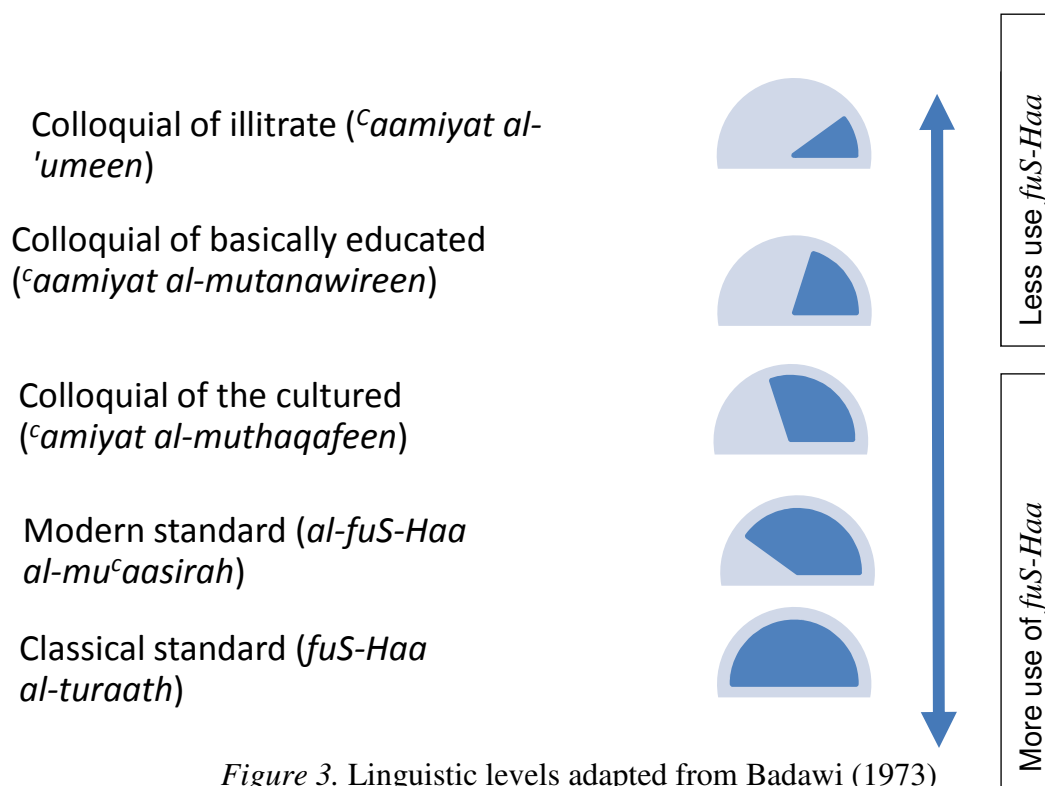


Figure 3. Linguistic levels adapted from Badawi (1973)

From this perspective, the need for teachers and learners of Arabic to study CS becomes clear. Diglossia does not constitute a problem for native speakers, for they – of course – acquire DA as their L1, and learn SA in schools as another variety of L1. The challenge is for nonnative speakers. In order to acquire native-like competence, learners should not only have good command of the two codes, but they should know when and how they should/may switch the codes within the same type of discourse. Furthermore, failing to make the right pragmatic decision regarding code-choice may constitute a threat to communication. As Ferguson indicates, the use of the wrong code may cause the speaker to become “an object of ridicule” (Ferguson, 1959, as cited in Albirini, 2011). Personally, I would feel awkward if the Imam were to give his Friday sermon in the vernacular form all the time, or if someone was to use the standard to tell a joke or to

hold an everyday conversation. Thus, for nonnative speakers, it is a challenge to understand and use CS in different situations. In order to illustrate how to teach CS in the classroom, I need to illustrate first the motivations behind CS in Arabic language.

### **The social functions of CS**

Many factors motivate speakers to code-switch including morphosyntactic factors, structural factors, and factors related to bi-linguistic proficiency of the speaker (Bassiouney, 2006). Bassiouney (2009) explains that CS occurs at the inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and inter-word level, each of which is subject to structural constraints. I have presented further details about the structural constraints of CS in the annotated bibliography on diglossia. The study of the structural constraints of diglossic code-switching (Bassiouney, 2009) is beyond the scope of this paper. My focus in this paper, and what I believe is most important for language learners, is the sociolinguistic factors that motivate CS.

Much research has been done on the social motivation behind CS (e.g. Scotton, 1995; Bassiouney, 2006; 2009; Albirini, 2011). Bassiouney (2006) explains the role of surrounding the context and the setting regarding code-choice. According to Weinreich (1953, as cited in Bassiouney, 2006), a university professor, for example, would choose the formal code to deliver a university lecture while he/she may move to a less formal code when addressing a student at the personal level. In that context, what triggers the switch is the change in the speech event which is subject to participants, the topic, and the setting (Bassiouney, 2006).



Gumperz (1982 as cited in Bassiouney, 2006; 2009) prioritizes the role of the speaker over the situation. According to him, the speaker is one who manipulates situation, and, thus, deserves more attention. Blom and Gumperz (1972, as cited in Bassiouney, 2009) distinguish between situational CS and metaphorical CS. Situational CS is motivated by external factors, such as the setting and the topic. On the other hand, metaphorical CS is related to the perception of the speaker in relation to those external factors (Bassiouney, 2009). Romaine (1995, cited in Bassiouney, 2006) lists ten functions related to metaphorical CS. According to her, speakers code-switch (1) to quote someone, (2) to specify the addressee, (3) to reiterate, (4) to qualify a message, (5) to differentiate personal talk from general talk, (6) to use as a filler, (7) to clarify, (8) to change the topic, (9) to signal a type of discourse, and (10) to specify a special arena.

Albirini (2011) has shown through analysis of religious texts, political debates, and soccer commentaries that speakers switch between SA and DA according to certain patterns. Albirini (2011) indicates that regardless of the discourse, native speakers switch from DA to SA for several social functions such as using formulaic expressions, direct quotation, adding emphasis or assuring identity. In addition, within the use of SA, speakers may switch to DA to make a direct quote, to simplify or to exemplify, to indicate not being serious, or to scold.

### **The pedagogical implication of CS**

The traditional method of teaching Arabic tends to focus only on SA, for it is the form that keeps the standard linguistic structure of Arabic. This approach does not admit DA at all. A good example of this method is *al-kitaab al-asaasi: A basic course for*

*teaching Arabic to non-native speakers* (Badawi, 2008), which makes no reference to DA as an in-action way of communication. Thus, the students who learn from this book will not be communicating efficiently with native speakers of Arabic. On the other extreme are some books such *kallimni 'arabi bishweesh: A beginners' course in spoken Egyptian*, which covers DA in detail, while paying no attention to the SA (Louis, 2008). In both cases, Arabic is seen as two different language varieties. Learners will use one form in their written work and another in their spoken interaction, while the case with native speakers is that they code-switch between SA and DA in both spoken (Albirini, 2011; Bassiouney, 2006, 2010) and written form (Ibrahim 2010; Amin, 2013), and in formal and informal situations (Albirini, 2011).

The debate about which code should be taught first, and whether they should be taught separately or in parallel is beyond the scope of this study. What I am focusing on in this paper is the matter of teaching advanced learners of Arabic, who already have a good command of the two codes, to switch between codes naturally in a way that will give them a native-like competence and augment their communicative repertoire.

To the best of my knowledge, there are not many studies that focus on the pedagogical implication of CS in the classroom. In her study about written CS, Amin (2013) suggests that learners should start to train themselves in DA even in SA classes by making side remarks in DA. In addition, she advises learners to use realia as a weekly activity in which they send messages and emails that include CS. Furthermore, she recommends play writing in which learners use CS for writing the script. However, the suggested implications seem to me to be insufficient and lacking the theoretical background. In the next part, I offer an approach to teaching CS according to the

concepts and social functions of CS illustrated by Albirini (2011). I will explain concept-based instruction, its theoretical background, and how it can be used in the classroom to teach CS.

### **The theoretical background of concept based instruction**

Sociocultural Theory (SCT) (Vygotsky, 1978) views learning as the development of higher psychological processes, also known as higher mental functions (Subbotsky, 1996). Higher psychological processes require the use of mediation to carry out a mental activity. In contrast to lower mental functions, higher psychological processes are voluntary and socially acquired (Subbotsky, 1996), and they are mediated through the use of psychological tools “such as language, signs and symbols” (Lantolf, 2011, p. 25). The definition I have provided of higher psychological process here consists of a number of constructs that need to be clarified. Further illustration of these constructs will help explain higher psychological processes, and thus, will help the reader understand the theoretical background of concept-based instruction.

The first construct is the concept of mediation. Lantolf (2011) defines mediation as, “the creation and use of artificial auxiliary means of acting—physically, socially, and mentally” (p. 25). These auxiliary means of mediation can either be tools or signs. In describing an early use of signs, Vygotsky (1978) relates that when children unsuccessfully attempt to reach something and their caretakers bring it to them, they become conscious of the use of gestures. The unsuccessful attempt to reach turns into the gestures of pointing at a desired item, forming a link between the *action* of pointing at an

item and the *meaning* of getting that item. It gives the gesture the meaning and makes it a sign.

Signs can be gestures, graphs, mathematical symbols, blue prints, or speech, as in Vygotsky's (1978) experiment that reveals that children use self-talk or *egocentric* speech to manipulate their behavior while trying to obtain a candy. Both tools and signs are means of mediating human activities. When children use a physical counter to help them solve a mathematical problem, they are using a tool that helps manipulate their thinking about the problem. The tool is an external and physical object used to mediate the activity of solving a mathematical problem which is a higher psychological process. Later, whenever a child tries to divide numbers, he/she recalls the image of the counter in her/his head. This means that the counter that was previously an external tool has come to be used as a self-generated and artificial stimulus. They do not need the physical counter any more, because they can recall the use of the counter in their head. In this example, the operation (using the counter to manipulate solving a division problem), which was external before, is "reconstructed and begins to occur internally" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57). Then, children start using these signs as self-generated "artificial stimuli" (Vygotsky 1978, p. 50) to control the activity. Through engaging in the activity of using the counter to solve a division problem, the child appropriates the concept of division, and this is how learning takes place.

The psychological tool is the mental image of the counter that is used as an artificial stimulus to control the activity of solving the mathematical problem. Through further engagement in the activity, the process of solving basic division problems

becomes easier. Eventually, children do not feel the need to use the counter to regulate their thinking. They become *self-regulated*. And that indicates that they have internalized the concept of division. Once internalized, the concept of division itself becomes a psychological tool that is used to manipulate more complicated mathematical problems.

Vygotsky (1978) explains that in the course of development, we move from the concrete and physical to the abstract and theoretical. As I showed in the example of the counter, the child's behavior began by being regulated by an object till the child internalized the concept of division. The internalization of a concept enables us to use it as a psychological tool for more complicated tasks, and thus lays the foundation for more development.

SCT views learning as an ongoing process in which subjects develop psychological tools that help them carry out activities. Once a concept becomes internalized through activity, it becomes another psychological tool that is used to carry out more activities. That is why instruction in the classroom should be activity-based and concept-centered.

Following Vygotsky's theory Gal'perin has developed his approach to concept-based instruction. Gal'perin (1992) explains that if educators want to consider the process of concept-formation in the mind, then certain procedures should be taken. "Disclosing to the subject the objective grounds with regards to which he [sic] must orient his actions, reorganizing accordingly the material to be learned, and outlining a series of rigorously sequential changes ... to the point of even forming new strictly mental phenomenal" (Gal'perin, 1992, p. 60). Gal'perin explains that the process of concept formation consists of introducing the concept, cultivating or refining the concept, and finally internalization

or assimilation of the concept. This approach is based on three foundations derived from SCT. The first foundation is that teaching and learning carry out a principal role in development. Secondly, cognitive development is best achieved through “gradual internalization of material action” (Arievitch & Haenen, 2005, p. 157). Finally, development is achieved through the use of tools and social interaction.

The process of mental action formation is explained as “the gradual internalization of initially external forms of the individual’s activities” (Arievitch & Haenen, 2005, p. 157). As Arievitch and Haenen explain, any action can be executed through three levels of abstraction: material, verbal, and mental. The material level includes the physical representation, when an action is performed with the aid of physical objects or their material representation (e.g., graphs, charts, etc.). This is called *operative thinking*. Vygotsky found that children were literally talking to themselves when trying to solve a problem. The harder the problem, the more likely they use this self-talk. When we grow up, this self-talk is more likely to become internal (Vygotsky, 1978). Accordingly, Arievitch and Haenen (2005) suggests that the second level of abstraction is the verbal level in which the action is performed by means of speaking aloud which is called communicative thinking, or *dialogical thinking*. At the end, the action is exclusively performed internally, and external objects are no longer necessary (Arievitch & Haenen, 2005). Therefore, the approach that I am offering for teaching concepts related to CS consist of three stages: orienting phase, materialization phase, verbalization and production phase.

As for the orienting phase, Gal’perin (1992) explains that the process of concept-formation consists of two actions: an orienting part in which the subject builds his/her

schema, and an executing part which realizes the concept in the orienting part by performing an action. Accordingly, Arieivitch and Haenen (2005) propose a model that does not only take into consideration the sequence of levels of mastering an action (material, verbal, and mental) but also suggests an orienting stage before the material level. Gal'perin emphasizes that learners should engage with the learning activity based on orientation. In the orienting phase “the schema for a complete orienting basis for the new action is explained” (Gal'perin, 1992, p. 62). Arieivitch and Haenen explain, “the initial orientation includes the intended outcome, objects, and means of the action, and the necessary steps and conditions of action” (Arieivitch & Haenen, 2005, p. 160). Orienting learners is crucial because without it, they will not be able to plan their participation in the activity, and thus, the learners' development will not be optimized (Thorne et al., 2008).

The material stage is also key. SCT views learning as an activity-based process. As Arieivitch and Haenen explain, the first stage of learning is that the activity becomes meaningful, then it becomes generalized, and finally, the action is internalized and performed mentally so that it orients other actions. In order to make it meaningful, Arieivitch and Haenen (2005) recommend that, learners have the opportunity to solve the problem materially, “so that all the substantial aspects of the action... [become] clear to the learner” (p. 159). Secondly, the learning activity should include “having the learner perform the task verbally” (p. 159) to finally reach a stage of self-regulation, or what Arieivitch and Haenen call, “automation of the action” (p. 159). Gal'perin (1992) explains that in the second stage, learners are given tasks that they must accomplish using the schema they developed in the orientation level. As discussed above, material

representation plays a role in manipulating learning. This can be obtained either by material objects or their symbolic representation. That's why SCT suggest schematizations such as graphs, figures, and tables (Thorne et al., 2008). According to Arieivitch and Haenen (2005), "[t]hese representations ... may take the form of models, displays, diagrams, maps, and drawings, which reflect the properties and relationships essential for the action" (p. 160-161). Arieivitch and Haenen highlight that materialization is not limited to children learning. In fact, there are a number of studies that show that adults need materialization, at least partially, when introduced to a new concept (Ausubel, 1968; Salmina, 1988; Talyzina, 1981 as cited in Arieivitch and Haenen, 2005).

In the following level of Gal'perin's procedures, learners are encouraged to verbalize the concept. Verbalization is an intermediate stage between the material and the mental stage which occurs in the form of overt speech first and then is transferred into covert speech, or *speech minus sound* which is the last stage before the mental stage (Arieivitch & Haenen, 2005). Finally, the action is abbreviated into thought. "[T]he action is transformed into a mental phenomenon chain of images and concepts" (Arieivitch & Haenen, 2005, p. 161). In the final stage of the model I propose, the learners are encouraged to produce CS in various activities. Shifting the focus of the learners from input to output will help them focus on the form (Swain, 1985) and will complete the internalization progress.

### **Building concept-based activities for CS: the application of a specific model**

Thorne, Reinhardt, and Golombek (2008) draw selected elements from Gal'perin's approach and offer a three-stage model for teaching academic spoken English to international Teaching Assistants at Penn State University. The three stages begin by



orienting the learners to the concepts of genre and language as discourse. The second stage is the use of high-level conceptual materialization, and the third stage is individual and group verbalization. The same track, I believe, can be followed to teach CS for advanced Arabic learners. Below, I explain how to implement Thorne et al. model (2008) in teaching the concepts behind CS that Albirini (2011) identified.

Albirini offers an analytical model of the pattern of CS between SA and DA. The orienting phase that I propose for teaching CS includes introducing learners to the concept of diglossia as the coexistence of two codes of the same language. Learners should be aware that the two codes are used in all types of discourse. However, in formal situations, the speaker would *tend* to speak in SA while moving to DA purposefully to indicate unimportance, low prestige, accessibility, and triviality (Albirini, 2011). On the other hand, in informal situations, speakers *tend* to speak in DA while moving to SA purposefully to indicate importance, high prestige, seriousness, and sophistication (Albirini, 2011). In the orienting phase, it should be explained to learners that, even though CS is not always systematic, the desired outcome of that intervention is to help them understand and practice systematic sociopragmatic functions of CS, which will augment their communication repertoires. As Gal'perin (1992) stipulates, part of the orienting phase is to explain the process of the intervention or "the means of the action and the necessary steps and conditions of the action" (Arievitch & Haenen, 2005, p. 160).

In Thorne Reinhardt, and Golombek's model (2008), the orienting phase begins with an opening activity exposing learners to some authentic natural data of academic spoken discourse, followed by posing questions that aim at heightening learners'

awareness about that genre (Thorne et al., 2008). Similarly, I recommend beginning the orienting phase with exposing learners to different CS cases and posing questions for discussion that direct their attention to CS. The following excerpt (Table 2) is taken from Albirini (2011) and exhibits a good example of CS. Then the excerpt is followed by sample questions that I designed to heighten learners' CS awareness. DA is indicated by **bold**.

*Table 2*

Sample for opening orienting activity

naqif □inda haaða l-mawqif Stop.1PL at this the-position	... wa haawalna qadar l-mustaTaa□ ... and tried.1PL extent the-possible	... Tab□an əl-mas□uul əl-maSri ... Of course the-official the-Egyptian
<b>Ili waÐÐah bəTuulat-a fii maa</b>	<b>qaala fii □aÐənti fii muqaabala tilfizjuunijja</b>	<b>□aw ši □ana maa rah rudd □alei-ha</b>
that stated heroisms-his in what	said.3S.M in think.1S in interview television. .ADJ	or thing I NEG will respond on-them.
<p>'We stop at this position...and we tried to as much as possible...Of course, the Egyptian official <b>who tried to state his heroisms in what he said, I think, in a TV interview, I will not respond to them [his heroisms].</b>' (Excerpt from Albirini, 2011)</p>		
<p>Questions for discussion:</p> <p>Who are the participants in this conversation?          What are they talking about?          What was the code in the beginning of the guest talk? What was the code at the end?          Why do you think the speaker changes the code? What does this tell you about the speaker's feelings?</p>		

According to Albirini, that was a politician speaking about a Qatari-Egyptian dispute over the location of an Arab summit. The speaker uses SA in a long discussion to justify the Qatari position. The speaker decides to shift to DA to belittle the Egyptian official position. The aim of the questions asked is to raise learner awareness about the setting, the genre, and the *use* (LoCastro, 2012) as connected to code-choice. It also aims at introducing the concept of systematic purposeful CS and some of the concepts behind it. Similar procedures should be followed in the orienting phase regarding different concepts of CS as indicated in Albirini (2011). A similar method of contrastive analysis was used by Fisher, Douglas & Lapp, Diane. (2013) in teaching Academic English to young learners who speak African American Vernacular. This opening activity is followed by explanation of the following points:

- Arabic is a diglossic language which means that native speakers use different varieties (codes) within the same context: Dialectical Arabic and Standard Arabic.
- Within the same speech event, speakers may shift between codes. That is called code-switching (CS) and it is usually done systematically and purposefully.
- CS is predictable, recurrent, systematic (Bassfour-Omar, 2003) and, thus, it is learnable.

Learners are then asked to identify CS in various excerpts that exhibit different cases of CS. Then, they are asked to reflect upon the purposes of each case. The discussion is followed by explicit instruction on the following points

1. Code-Choice: One of the main factors that determine the choice of the code is the social domain in which the speech event occurs. When we speak about code

choice here, we mean the general code that represents the majority of the speech.

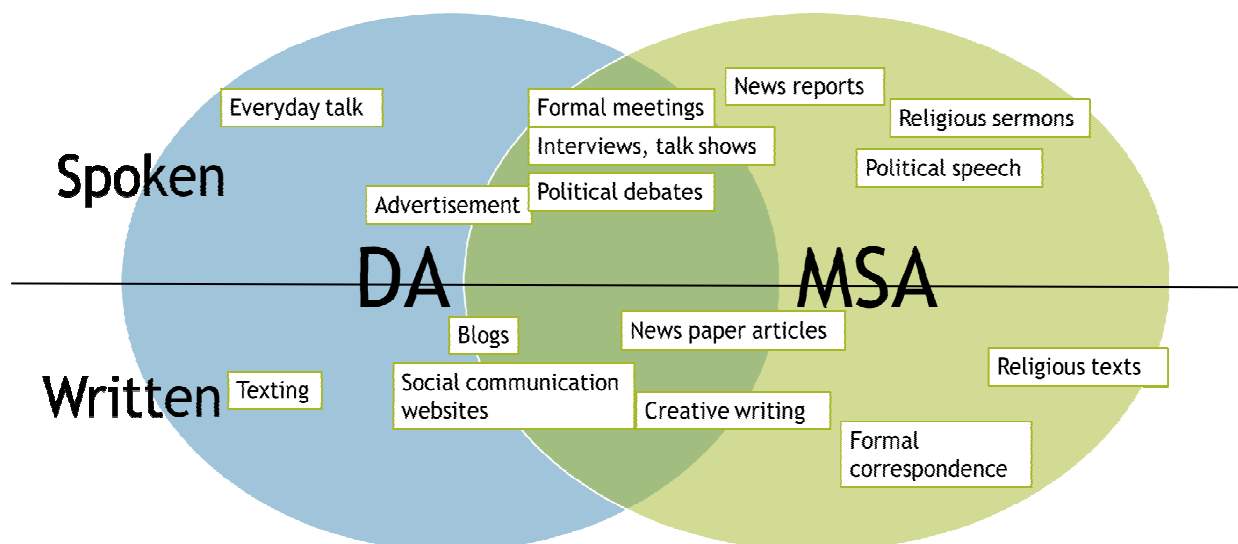
Deviation from the code is *not* considered a mistake if it is done in accordance with the social norms. Mixing codes occurs in some social domains more than others.

2. Code-Switching: (derived from Albirini, 2011) There are six basic concepts that motivate the speaker to change the code:
  - a. Importance: the following social functions of CS motivate the speaker to use SA even within the social domains in which DA is more appropriate.
    - i. Direct quotation
    - ii. Highlight a piece of discourse
    - iii. Mark emphasis

The following social functions of CS motivates the speaker to shift to DA even when SA is more common

    - iv. Indirect quote
    - v. Parenthetical phrase/filler
    - vi. Downplay a piece of discourse
  - b. Accessibility: native speakers would shift to DA when they try to explain some information to the listener. They shift to DA to
    - i. Exemplify
    - ii. Simplify
    - iii. Introduce daily life sayings
  - c. Seriousness: native speakers use CS to indicate the tone of the speech: they assign SA to indicate seriousness and DA to indicate comic speech.
  - d. Prestige:
    - i. SA is used to express issues of high prestige such as formulaic expressions or to take a pedantic stance.
    - ii. DA is used to discuss low prestige issues such as derogatory issues, scolding or daily life saying.
  - e. Identity: SA is used to confirm pan-Arabist or pan-Islamist stance.
  - f. Sophistication

In the following stage the learners are asked to identify code-choice and relate to social domain in which the speech event occurs. Figure 4 is presented to help them.



*Figure 4.* Non-dichotomous model of code-choice

Even though the focus is on spoken language, the written social domains are presented to inform the learner about the complete picture. This activity should be supported by exemplar usage of the social domain. It should be clear to the learners that this chart helps them decide the general code of speech, and does not represent all cases of CS. This chart will help the learners also understand the concept of High variety and Low variety.

This materialization is followed by another materialization (Appendix 1) consisting of a flow chart to illustrate cases of CS and accompanied with activities in which learners are asked to identify CS cases and their social functions. Each activity is followed by discussion to help the learners verbalize their understanding of the concepts related to CS.

In the final process, the learners are asked to perform a production task in which they demonstrate their use of code-choice and CS according to the charts. The production

tasks can be learning scenarios or role plays in which learners are asked to exhibit their understanding of CS. For example, “Explain to your friend the importance of Middle Eastern studies at American universities. Introduce basic concepts in SA, and give your friend some examples and simple illustrations in DA”. In this activity, they are asked to use CS to *exemplify*. Similar activities should be offered. For example, they might be asked to use SA in a formal speech, and tell a joke in DA. These activities should be followed by another activity in which learners are asked to highlight the usage of a code in their own words.

### **Conclusion and further research**

CS in Arabic is a linguistic device that native speakers use to convey certain messages. This means that learners of Arabic should eventually be able use it in the same way that expert speakers do. Accordingly, I tried in this paper to set the basis of an approach towards teaching CS. However, further illustration of activities should be added. I suggest a corpus analysis of different cases of CS in the spoken language. This analysis will help educators design authentic activities following the model I offered in this paper.

**LITERACY ARTIFACT**

Developing literacy through teaching literature: Experiences  
from teaching adult ESL learners

## Introduction and Reflection

This paper is a reflection on my teaching during the global academy summer English immersion program. As an instructor in this program, I applied the practical knowledge I built up during my study in the MSLT.

In this paper, I discuss several topics related to L2 literacy. I begin by defining literacy in the language classroom. The definition of literacy lists related skills learners should have to be *literate*. These skills include learners' ability not only to crack the text, but also to engage with and benefit from it. By engaging with the text I refer to the development of reading strategies. In addition, I discuss another important aspect of literacy which is cultural literacy and how to enhance it during a reading L2 course.

The second theme discussed in this paper is content-based instruction (CBI) (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989) which is grounded in communicative language teaching. CBI refers to teaching authentic language content with the aim of developing linguistic proficiency.

The third topic discussed in this paper is the teaching of literature as a source of input in the L2 classroom. I discuss why and how language educators should teach literature texts in the language classroom.



Developing Literacy through Teaching Literature: Experiences  
from Teaching Adult ESL Learners

Abstract

This paper shows how literature can be used not only as a valuable source of vocabulary, but also for raising students' awareness about text structures, developing their reading strategies of scanning and skimming, and cultivating cross-cultural awareness. In this paper, I describe a reading course for intermediate ESL learners in the Global Academy Program at Utah State University. The course focuses on building three aspects of literacy: code-breaking, text participation (Freebody & Luke, 1990) and cultural literacy (Hirsch, Kett, & Trefil, 1987). A wide range of activities and their pedagogical purposes are discussed in relation to the reading texts (two short novels) on which the curriculum was based. The activities cover vocabulary, comprehension, text structure, strategic reading, and cultural awareness.

*Key words:* literacy, cultural literacy, ESL, reading, reading strategies, literature, text-structure

## **Introduction**

This paper is a review of my experience teaching reading in the Global Academy, an 8-week English immersion program. In this paper I try to answer the question “how can literacy be developed in a reading course?” The target audience of this paper is the intermediate to advanced second language learners of English. I begin the paper by reviewing the definition of literacy and its different dimensions. Then I describe the ideal reading classroom for developing particular dimensions of literacy. I will illustrate what the goals of the reading classroom should be and then how to realize these goals. This includes the answer to questions such as: What text should be taught and why? What is the role of culture in the language classroom? Since the focus of the reading course in the Global Academy program was teaching literature, I pay special attention to the pros and cons of teaching literature in the reading classroom. I also review a number of activities that I used during the program and their pedagogical purposes as well as the students’ attitude towards them.

### **What is literacy anyway?**

Literacy is often described as the ability to deal with written text, the ability to receive and process written input, or, simply, the ability to read and write. Murray and Christison (2011a) extend the definition of literacy to a more sophisticated one. According to them, literacy is more than *code-breaking* which is “decoding and encoding the text” (p. 133). Code-breaking is a small portion of a more comprehensive model

which involves understanding the text, using the text, and analyzing the text. They explain that these additional aspects of dealing with the text can be better explained by training the learners to answer these three questions: What does the text mean? What can I do with it?, and What does the text do to me? Murray and Christison suggest that to be able to answer these questions, readers need understanding of genres as well as understanding of intertextuality (the similarities and differences between different texts).

An often cited article is Freebody and Luke (1990), which explains better the distinction between the different aspects of literacy. They state that a literate reader plays four different roles: He is a “code breaker ('how do I crack this?'), text participant ('what does this mean?'), text user ('what do I do within this, here and now?'), and text analyst ('what does all this do to me?')” (p.7). In code-breaking, Freebody and Luke discuss a very basic beginning stage of connecting the sound to the writing symbols as an important step, I believe, for L1 children and novice L2 beginners to build literacy. The study of this stage and the related instructional activities regarding spelling and basic rules of vocabulary is beyond the scope of this paper. Since the target level of participants in this study is intermediate to advanced learners, I will focus on more advanced code-breaking activities that not only expand students' lexicon, but also develop advanced reading skills and strategies, as I will illustrate later.

Another important aspect of literacy, which will need careful attention in my discussion of literacy, is being able to *engage* with the text. Successful readers, according to Freebody and Luke (1990), are able to relate their own knowledge of grammar, text structure, and their background information about the reading topic to the text. This helps

readers make effective use of the vocabulary they know, and draw inferences to fill in the gaps that might occur from unfamiliar words. In order to be engaged with the text, or become a text participant (Freebody & Luke, 1990) which is an important aspect of literacy, learners must have some background knowledge of the topic and be aware of the text genre and the culture of the target language.

Bransford and Johnson(1972) explain that knowledge is stored in our minds in units called schemata. They show, through a series of experiments, that contextual knowledge is crucial to understanding a passage. Schemata are defined as “mental representations of information built up over time, founded in background knowledge, textual knowledge and cultural knowledge” (Murray & Christison, 2011a, p. 125). Bransford and Johnson explain that a schema helps learners to “create a context that is used to comprehend the passage” (Bransford and Johnson, 1972, p. 724). Schemata represent what the readers bring to the text and are created through readers’ different personal experiences. Lee and VanPatten (2003) explain that people’s understanding of a specific text is dependent on their background schemata. For example, a reader with background in linguistics will experience a different level of difficulty in reading a text by Chomsky than a person with a background in physics. In other words, schemata “constrain the interpretation of incoming information” (Lee & VanPatten, 2003, p. 219).

As Murray and Christison (2011a) indicate, knowledge of textual structure or the *genre* of the text, is a crucial part of schemata. The language of the text differs across genres. Furthermore, many text aspects are culture-specific. Murray and Christison (2011b) also explain that literacy is a “socioculturally embedded practice, dependent on

understanding of language, culture and other texts” (p.112). This means that an essential part of literacy is the understanding of the culture which actually has two aspects. The first is the native culture’s influence on the readers’ understanding, and the second is learners’ awareness of the target culture.

The question, then, is not whether to develop literacy in the language classroom; rather, what kind of literacy, or *literacies* (Freebody & Luke, 1990) should we focus on in the language classroom. In this paper, I will address three aspects of literacy: code-breaking, text-participation, and cultural literacy. Other kinds of literacy, such as technology literacy, are beyond the scope of this paper.

### **What is the purpose of a reading classroom?**

Having understood different dimensions of literacy, the question arises “How should the language classroom be designed in order to develop literacy?” A simple answer will be that a reading course should encourage readers not only to become good code-breakers, but also a text-participants. Furthermore, in the L2 classroom, the definition of cultural literacy should expand to include cultural skills that make learners cross-culturally competent.

A good reading course enables the readers to deal with text at the basic level of decoding and encoding. This requires developing vocabulary activities to provide the learners with the required input that supports their literacy acquisition. Many researchers in second language acquisition highlight the importance of *comprehensible input*

(Krashen, & Terrell, 1988; Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Shrum & Glisan, 2011) for acquiring L2. Nation (2009) confirms the importance of comprehensible input in language acquisition, or in his words *meaning-focused* input. He explains that another important aspect is language-focused activities, in which he includes grammar activities, spelling activities, and vocabulary activities.

A good reading course also encourages the learners to engage with the text or to be text-participants. It should help students develop reading strategies including searching for information (skimming and scanning), reading to integrate information, and critiquing the text. Nation (2009) also illustrates that language instruction should involve meaning-focused *output*, which means that the course should involve different activities related to other modes of communication as well (listening, speaking, and writing). A partial list of these strategies is offered by Nation (2009) as he explains, “the strategies could include: previewing, setting the purpose, predicting, posing questions, connecting to background knowledge, paying attention to text structure, guessing words from context, critique and reflecting on the text” (Nation, 2009, pp. 7-8).

As for text structure, Nation explains that students in a reading class should become familiar with a wide range of text structures, including narrative and news-stories as well as informative texts. In order to develop fluency, learners should practice activities for speed reading in which they are exposed to familiar texts. Speed reading includes strategies of skimming and scanning as well. Although Nation pays much attention to spelling for the beginner readers, it will not be highlighted in this paper, since the target audience of this paper is teachers of intermediate to advanced students.

In explaining reading strategies, Murray and Christison (2011b) distinguish between high-level reading strategies and low-level reading strategies. High-level strategies include making inferences from the texts, using context clues, and asking questions. On the other hand, low-level reading strategies include decoding and identifying unknown vocabulary. Murray and Christison recommend a balanced reading program that includes explicit instruction on reading strategies and which focuses on both high-level and low-level reading strategies.

Murray and Christison (2011a) explain that in teaching reading, a teacher can adopt a bottom-up model in which he/she begins with the smallest units (letters, words, and phrases) and moves to larger units such sentences, clauses, and paragraphs. The other common model of teaching reading is the top-down approach in which the teacher begins with a collection of “information, ideas, and beliefs about the text” of the readers. Murray and Christison advise that a good reading class should offer a balanced third model that contains both reading approaches.

Student background knowledge, according to Murray and Christison, plays a crucial role in helping learners understand the text. As I explained above, students’ schemata serve as constraints for understanding the reading. Lee and VanPatten (2003) explain that we use our schemata to disambiguate information. “We tend to screen out certain possibilities in a passage consistent with our background knowledge” (p. 219). We use our schemata also to elaborate on information and make inferences, to filter what to get from the text, to compensate for the lack of knowledge, and to organize information. Thus, a good reading class should activate learners’ schemata.

Shrum and Glisan (2010) explain that, historically, language proficiency was described in relation to the four language skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. The historical Audio-Lingual Method promoted teaching these skills independently. However, as Shrum and Glisan explain, these skills are rarely used in isolation in the real world. The three modes of communication, the interpretive, the interpersonal and the presentational, cooperate together in real-life situations and, thus, they should be taught together. In an ideal reading class, the focus is placed on the interpretive mode of communication which is related to the comprehension and the interpretation of the written texts. This is very crucial because the interpretive mode serves as comprehensible input which is important for acquisition. In fact, Shrum and Glisan (2010) describe the interpretive mode as a “vehicle for language acquisition” (p. 181). However this does not mean that teacher should neglect the other modes of communication. Even in a reading classroom, learners should be given the opportunity to negotiate the meaning with their classmates, and focus on the output, because it changes the focus of learners from processing the meaning to processing the form, and hence, promotes acquisition (Swain, 1985).

Another important aspect of a reading classroom is the type of material used for teaching reading, which is a key consideration. Research has shown that the use of authentic texts helps students better acquire the language (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). Authentic texts are “those [materials] which have been produced for purposes other than to teach language” (Nunan, 1988, as cited in Shomoossi & Ketabi, 2007, p. 150). Maxim (2002) shows how German beginner learners are able to read a 142-page romance



novel. In his empirical study, the treatment group attended a daily in-class reading of the romance novel instead of the usual reading assignment. In addition to being able to read the entire novel, the learners performed as well as their counterparts in the control group who had another graded reading assignment. Shrum and Glisan (2010) explain that in order for the treatment to be effective the students should be guided; they should receive training about effective reading strategies such as identifying key information and getting the gist. Shrum and Glisan explain that several studies (e.g., Vigil, 1987; Weyers, 1999 as cited in Shrum & Glisan, 2011) have shown that learners can improve their oral and written performance as a result of studying authentic texts.

Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989) introduced the concept of content-based instruction (CBI), which is considered a subfield of communicative language teaching (CLT). While CLT puts high emphasis on the use of authentic texts (Shrum & Glisan, 2010) CBI puts that notion of using authentic texts into action by teaching content area to the learners of the target language. Brinton et al. define CBI as “the integration of particular content with language-teaching aims” (p. 2). This means that CBI balances the emphases of focusing on content and focusing on form. CBI also refers to using authentic texts as a source of comprehensible input, a key element of language acquisition (Krashen & Terrell, 1988).

Brinton et al. explain that the best-known model of CBI is teaching languages for specific purposes (e.g., English for Specific Purposes) because of its reliance on the use of contextualized authentic texts. However, the result of teaching language for specific purpose is best when the learners’ group is homogeneous and they share similar goals for

language learning. Another common CBI model is immersion education in which learners are taught different subjects in the target language. This approach is highly valued in terms of second language education for it includes intensive exposure of input and natural communication in the target language, two indisputable necessities of language acquisition (Brinton et al., 1989).

Brinton et al. explain that there are number of approaches/models for CBI including theme-based content instruction in which the focus is on a number of selected topics that may or may not be related to each other, and in which the content is prioritized over the form. In CBI theme-based courses, students are involved in activities that cover different skills of reading, writing, and listening. Then, they move to higher levels of language processing (comparison, separating facts and opinion). Furthermore, vocabulary is recycled in guided discussions, related listening activities, and writing assignments (Brinton et al., 1989).

To synthesize all the above, I posit that an ideal reading class will have to meet the features mentioned in Table 3.

Table 3  
*Features of an ideal reading classroom*

<p>An ideal reading classroom should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Offer good sources of comprehensible input that serve acquisition. This includes helping students to decode texts through vocabulary activities</li> <li>- Provide an opportunity to the students to be engaged in different modes of communication so that they can interpret input, produce output, and negotiate meaning</li> <li>- Develop students' reading strategies such as skimming, scanning, making inferences from the text, guessing meanings from the contexts, etc.</li> <li>- Raise the students' awareness regarding genre structure</li> <li>- Have a balance of bottom-up and top-down techniques</li> <li>- Have authentic reading material to be read in the classroom</li> <li>- Raise students' cultural awareness</li> </ul>
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### **Choosing the text of a reading class**

Having understood the importance of the authentic text, the question is what authentic text should be taught in a reading class. The answer is dependent on the objectives of the course. The goals generally vary from general English, English for business, English for science and technology, English for academic purposes, etc. Even though it is not the only source of authentic texts, literature has traditionally been viewed as a valuable source of input in the language classroom (Hall, 2005; Huntington, 2002; Scott & Paran, 2006; Smith, 2001).

Smith (2001) explains the value of teaching literature which includes, by definition, pleasurable and motivating texts. She defines literature as “the art form of language. Its purpose is to entertain an audience to explore the human condition, and to reveal universal truth through shared experience” (p. 198). Scott and Huntington (2002) claim that teaching literary texts has helped the students’ literacy by raising their awareness regarding Second Culture (C2).

The language of literature is usually viewed as motivating and pleasurable. In addition, the language of literature has “a toleration of a greater variety than is found in any other kind of language use. It can include spoken and written features, diverse levels of formality, social professional styles, dialects” (Hall, 2005, p. 26). This means that literature is an excellent source of input that provides learners with different varieties of language in use. A number of arguments support the study of literature in L2 classrooms. The commonly stated argument is that literature is pleasurable, and thus motivating to the students (Hall, 2005; Paran, 2006; Smith, 2001). Paran (2006) states that “learners and teachers, throughout the world, respond to literature in the second language (L2) of the learner or teacher with pleasure and enthusiasm, engaging with it on many levels” (p. 2). Another argument is a linguistic argument: the study of literature provides readers with a wide range of vocabulary, teaches them new expressions, familiarizes them with grammatical structure of the language, and raises their awareness about text structure (Hall, 2005).

However, there are some concerns related to the study of literature as a source of input. Hall (2005) explains that the notion that literature is *always* pleasurable is not true.

In fact, a number of classroom studies show that literary works “put off at least as many students as they encourage” (Hall, 2005, pp. 51-52). One of the reasons for this is the focus that is placed in many second language classes on the literariness of the text. In many cases in foreign language education, which was also my personal experience, and which is confirmed by Hall (2005), the students read about the text much more than they read the text itself. In many countries in advanced EFL university classes, the classes are lecture-based, the texts are classics that are not usually read even by expert speakers, and the English level is highly elevated making a significant gap between the usual everyday language and what the students read in class. As Hall (2005) indicates, this approach has supported a thriving industry of translation and notes “summarizing author’s life and times, themes, plots, characters, and anticipating exam questions with list of key questions to learn” (p. 50). Furthermore, Hall continues, the language of literature is usually flowery, follows unusual grammatical structure, and is overly figurative and hard to understand. It does not follow the ‘sound’ structure (unusual collocation, ellipsis, etc.) and the choice of words is different (figurative, archaic, elevated). Another concern that Hall raises is that literature has been viewed traditionally with either an emphasis on the literariness or the linguistic aspects of the text and he suggested that both should be used in a balanced way.

All of these concerns cannot be generalized to all sorts of literature. Many of Hall’s arguments are related to either the choice of text or the methodology. A good literature-based ESL reading class will have a balanced approach that takes both the linguistic and the literary elements into consideration. As for the occurrence of

exceptional words and uncommon grammatical structures, I do not think the question is whether we should introduce them to the classroom, as they are an authentic part of the language, but when to introduce them and how much focus should be put on these unusual structures. When we choose a reading text for our L2 intermediate learners we have to avoid overly flowery texts. Rather, the choice of the text should fit their linguistic proficiency.

One way of categorizing texts, and hence choosing which text we should teach, is the *Lexile measure* (Lennon & Burdick, 2004) which presents a numeric representation of text difficulty according to a number of criteria. These criteria include the frequency of the words used in the text as compared to a 600-million word corpus, and the complexity of the text and/or the length of the sentences used. The Lexile measure is a very useful tool for choosing texts for CBI courses.

### **Developing cultural literacy**

The ACTFL standards include understanding of cultural practices and perspectives of the target culture (standard 2.1) and the relationship between the perspectives and the products of the target culture. In addition, learners should be able to compare the target culture to their own culture (standard 4.2). However, there are a number of other concerns regarding the study of the culture; these concerns include what is culture, and which culture should be taught? And what do language instructors need to teach their students? (ACTFL)

One aspect of culture in an L2 classroom is related to the background information of the learners which constitutes an important part of their schemata. Different cultural backgrounds may result in different understanding of reading test. Steffensen, Joag-Dev, and Anderson (1979, as cited in Lee & VanPatten, 2003) have shown that learners of Indian and American cultures had a totally different understanding of marriage ceremonies while reading the same text. The term cultural literacy itself, as coined by Hirsch, Kett and Trefil (1987), puts a lot of emphasis on the background information of texts. Hirsch et al. (1987) define cultural literacy as

The network of information that all competent readers possess. It is the background information, stored in their minds, that enables them to take up a newspaper and read it with an adequate level of comprehension, getting the point, grasping the implications, relating what they read to the unstated context which alone gives meaning to what they read. (p. 2)

This definition highlights the important aspect of background information which brings us again to the schemata theory. According to Hirsch et al., the role of culture in the classroom is to build learner's schemata. Even Schweizer (2009), who claims to revisit the concept of cultural literacy, views cultural literacy in terms of background information when he points out the lack of cultural literacy in American schools. As a proof of his point, he states that many students do not know who Gandhi is or "don't grasp the ominous implications of "in the offing," and they miss the ironic overtones of 'quixotic'" (Schweizer, 2009 p. 53).

Background information about the target culture cannot be underestimated. This includes knowledge of arts and literature of the target culture or Culture with capital 'C' (LoCastro, 2012) and the norms and behaviors practiced by large groups in

the target language communities which is culture with small 'c' (LoCastro, 2012). However, this understanding of *culture* as a concept remains specific to a particular group of target language speakers and is not applicable to others. It focuses mainly on the *content* of culture and downplays many other imperatives of cultural awareness. In an L2 classroom, the definition of cultural literacy should take account of all aspects of intercultural competence including not only knowledge of the target culture/Culture but also general cultural awareness.

I believe, in a second language classroom, cultural literacy is equivalent to intercultural competence which not only requires understanding of the history and civilization of the target language speakers and awareness of people's behavior and norms, but also requires self-awareness of one's own culture in a way that enables learners to easily enculturate with target culture. This means that to develop cultural literacy, learners need to be aware of the concept of culture itself, the culture of a specific group of people, and their own culture. As Martin and Nakayama (2008) state, "Intercultural communication begins as a journey into another culture and reality and ends as a journey into one's own culture" (p. 16).

Then the question becomes: how can language educators develop this awareness? More precisely, how can teaching literature develop cultural literacy? Scott and Huntington (2002) conducted an empirical study to examine the influence of teaching literature in developing cultural competence. They compared the cultural awareness between students who studied a fact sheet about culture in Côte d'Ivoire and students who studied a poem about Côte d'Ivoire. The result showed that the



information that students who studied the fact sheet learned about Côte d'Ivoire tended to be more rigid and fostered stereotypes. On the other hand, those who studied a poem were able to “explore their own feeling about the language” (p. 622).

The model introduced by Scott and Huntington (2002) of cultural competence involves awareness of feelings and attitude, recognition of several views, “tolerance of ambiguity, and non-judgmental evaluation of the others” (p. 623). Literary texts, Scott and Huntington explain, provide learners with a two-way interaction between the students’ own culture and the target culture, and hence improve their cultural awareness. The development of this cultural awareness improves their appreciation towards others. In literature, “there is no single understanding of “truth,” but a creation of meaning brought about by the interaction between the student and the C2 through the literary text” (p. 624). The teacher encourages students’ awareness of other cultures by encouraging them to ask, “How do I feel about this? Why? How might someone else feel about this? Why?” These questions, I believe, can always be raised regarding different situations in a narrative. The instructor should always be on the lookout for specific scenes in the narrative that show cultural differences and use them to develop students’ tolerance towards other systems of values and beliefs.

### **Global Academy program**

The Global Academy program is an immersion summer program for second language learners from around the world, the majority of whom are from the Dominican Republic and the rest from other different places from all over the world. The program

consists of either a 4-week session or an 8-week session and involves language instruction on the campus of Utah State University. The courses offered in the program are: reading, writing, speaking, and integrated skills. Here I will speak about the reading course and how I have applied the information mentioned above in developing the curriculum.

The texts that were taught in the reading class are two novels: *Iqbal*, a novel by D'Adamo (2003) on the theme of child labor in Pakistan, and *A Long Walk to Water*, by Linda Sue Park (2011) which focuses on the elements of survival, searching for water, and escaping civil war. As indicated by the program coordinator, those books were selected for two reasons. The first is the content; as “both books are based on a true story and feature high-interest, multi-faceted, real-world issues” (K. de Jonge-Kannan, personal communication, July 31, 2014). The other aspect is the language of the books, which represents “a relatively low reading level suitable for adult non-native speakers of English with intermediate level proficiency” (K. de Jonge-Kannan, personal communication, July 31, 2014).

The activities I developed for the classroom targeted a wide range of pedagogical purposes, all of which are either related to code-breaking, text engagement, or raising cultural awareness.

## Vocabulary activities

Vocabulary knowledge is essential for literacy. It goes without saying that to achieve high proficiency in reading, or to become code-breakers (Freebody & Luke, 1990), learners need to enlarge their lexicon. This is an undoubted fact in L1 and L2 classroom, for children and adult, and for ESL and EFL classrooms (Murray & Christison, 2011a). The development of students' vocabulary is a complicated process. Memorizing a list of vocabulary will not help the students. As Murray and Christison (2011a) explain, even though the regular English dictionary contains between 500,000 and 600,000 entries, the speakers who are able to use around 6000 words can communicate effectively. This means that the minimum required for efficient communication is just those 6000 commonly used words. Below, I describe some effective vocabulary activities and my rationale for using them.

As an assignment, the students were asked to read one chapter of the novel. Then, in class, they were asked activity to *locate* a number of key words that I assigned in the chapter. This helped them developing the skill of scanning through a specific text. In another activity, the students were asked to find words whose meaning they were able to guess from the contexts. They were asked to share with their partners how they were able to guess the meaning from context, and what other key words helped them guess the meaning.

In another assignment, they were asked to fill in a chart about the meaning of words, their definition and where they were located in the text. This activity sought to

guide their reading, improve their scanning skill, and reinforce some of the key vocabulary in the book (Figure 5). For all vocabulary activities, the goal was to help students reinforce vocabulary in various contexts, give them an opportunity to deal with the input, and negotiate the meaning with their partner in the interpersonal level, which helped them become effective code-breakers. Another activity that focused on the output of the vocabulary is adapted from New York State (2014) in which the students were asked to rewrite a sentence from the novel that explains a key underlined word. The pedagogical purpose of this activity is to shift the students' focus from processing the meaning to processing the form, and to offer them a variety of different modes of communication.

**Vocabulary assignment:** Read chapters 4 and 5 of 'a long walk to the water' and fill in this chart while you are reading.

Word/Phrase	Page	Definition
Relentless	52	Continuing without pause or interruption.
Arid	52	_____
Whiff	_____	A puff or breath of air or smoke
_____	52	To pierce or stab with a horn or tusk
parch	53	_____
Sip	_____	A small mouthful of liquid

Figure 5. Sample vocabulary assignment, adapted from New York State (2014).

### **Comprehension questions**

A good reading exercise focuses on aspects of the text that can be applied to any text, and, of course, lead students to read the text. One of the most commonly used reading activities is comprehension questions (Nation, 2009). Even though Nation explains that comprehension questions are hard to design, many language teachers like to use them because the answers reflect the learners' understanding of the text. However, Nation raises some valid concerns about comprehension questions. The main concern is that comprehension questions are usually text-specific. In other words, learners cannot apply the knowledge they learned from comprehension questions to any other text. Nation states that even though comprehension questions sometimes foster more generalizable knowledge, such as interpreting a reference word, this requirement is not usually clear to the learners. Another concern is that sometimes comprehension questions are answerable without returning to the text.

The above concerns are not related to the type of question but rather the design of the activity. Whether it is a yes/no question, pronominal question, or multiple choice question, the purpose of the question should be clear to both the learner and the teacher. As I discussed before, one of my general objectives is to help students becoming text-decoders and text-participants. In other words, I want them to understand the text first, and to engage with the text by applying reading strategies, drawing inferences, and responding to the text critically. As Nation explains (2009), another important purpose of comprehension questions is to derive a précis from the text in which students are asked to summarize the text.

Teachers can use comprehension questions to explain cultural content and to raise cultural awareness. In both novels taught in the Global Academy program, the students were asked about the culture of the place where the story takes place, and how the culture influences the personality of the main character (Figure 6). Another activity which is also adapted from New York State (2014) is an *information transfer* (Nation, 2009) activity. In small groups, the students were asked to fill in a graphic organizer in which they copy quotes from the text in one column and explain what it shows about the character in the narrative. Not only does this activity coach the students to make inferences from the text, but also it also raises their cultural awareness.

Comprehension question

Quote: “Salva had three brothers and two sisters. As each boy reached the age of about ten years, he was sent off to school.”

**What does this show about how culture, time, or place influenced Salva’s or Naya’s identity?**

*Figure 6.* Adabted from New York State (2014). Example of comprehension questions that focuses on the raising cultural awareness

Many times the students were asked to compare the culture of the character to their own culture. Sometimes the plot of the narrative itself gave the teacher an opportunity to elaborate more on the cultural aspects when the character actually moves from one culture to the other. For example, in *A Long Walk to Water* (Park, 2011), Salva, the main character in the story, travels to the USA. That gave the teacher the opportunity

to discuss how different Salva's culture is from the American culture and what challenges Salva may encounter.

One of the important aspects of becoming a text participant is to be aware of text structure and genre and relating these to one's background knowledge (Freebody & Luke, 1990). This does not only activate students' schemata (Bransford & Johnson, 1972) but also guides them to respond to the text critically and use the text for purposes other than understanding the text (Nation, 2009). Dymock (2007) explains the same idea when he states, "Good comprehenders use a number of strategies, including activating prior knowledge, monitoring comprehension, generating questions, answering questions, drawing inferences, creating mental imagery, identifying the text structure the writer has used, and creating summaries" (p. 161).

In the Global Academy reading course, I helped students develop these skills by drawing their attention to narrative structure. Dymock claims that students understand a narrative text better if the teacher focuses on the *story grammar* (Kintsch, Mandel, & Kozminsky, 1977; Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Thorndyke, 1977 as cited in Dymock, 2007). Dymock also suggests the use of hierarchy: "The setting, theme, characters, plot, and resolution are located at, or near, the top of the story grammar hierarchy. The more specific details such as subgoal, attempt, and outcome, are located lower in the hierarchy" (Dymock, 2007, p. 162). This division, I believe, is important because it tells the teacher what points to focus on and how to prioritize them. Dymock (2007) describes the major aspects of what students need to learn about story grammar. He states that learners need to know about the *setting* of the narrative which establishes where and when the narrative takes place, the *characters* as classified into majors and minors, describing individual

characters in terms of appearance and personality, and the *plot* as analyzed into problem, response, action and outcome. I developed activities related to each of these aspects of the story grammar. The use of graphic organizers aimed at helping the students carry out the activities because it materializes the information and turns it into a graphic form. For the novels provided in the Global Academy program, students were able to describe the setting of each chapter in their daily notes assignment. In classroom activities, they worked in pairs to fill in a chart about each character. In this chart they described their personality features and their appearance features. Furthermore, they filled out in a story map (Beck & McKeown, 1981; Dymock, 2007) that helped them organize their ideas. A story map is defined by Beck and Mckeown as “a unified representation of a story based on a logical organization of events and ideas of central importance to the story and the interrelationships of these events and ideas” (Beck & McKeown, 1981, p. 914). For output practice, they used these guidelines for telling another story in their groups. The following is an example of a simple pair activity as adapted from Dymock, (2007). The students were asked to read some chapters of *Iqbal*, and they had to fill out a story map (Figure. 7).



With a classmate, fill in the following story map about Iqbal.

Main theme of the story	
Characters	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Minor characters:</li> <li>• Major characters:</li> </ul>
Major Character 1	Appearance features: Personality features:
Major character 2	Appearance features: Personalities features:
Main events in the story (the plot)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Problem:</li> <li>• Response:</li> </ul> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: top; margin-left: 20px;">           Action:            Outcome:         </div>
The end of the story.	

Figure 7. Sample of a story map, Adapted from Dymock (2007)

It should be noted that in an ideal reading class, students should be introduced to different types of texts. While the narrative text provides the frame work of content-based instruction, instructors should support proficiency development with other genres related to the main theme of the class. In the Global Academy program, I introduced the students to a news story about child labor in Pakistan. The article tells a story about the abuse of a young girl who was taken as a slave. The students had the opportunity to compare the events in the news article with the events of *Iqbal*. They learned about the structure of the news article by filling in a graphic organizer. Then they compared the structure of the

narrative text to the structure of the news article. Finally, they were asked to reproduce the story of Iqbal in the form of a news story, thus, practicing the presentational mode.

### **Conclusion**

Literacy in second language education has many aspects. In this paper I focused on three main aspects: code-breaking, text-participation, and cultural literacy. I reviewed how to develop these aspects through content-based instruction. The texts used in a reading class in content-based instruction should be authentic. I argued that teaching literature in content-based instruction is a good choice because it usually covers different levels of language and is viewed by many as pleasurable and motivating. The classroom activities that foster literacy in the aspects mentioned above include vocabulary activities, comprehension questions, and activities that focus on text structure.

**LANGUAGE ARTIFACT**

The application of dynamic assessment in the Arabic classroom:

A reflection on a lesson plan

### **Introduction and Reflection: Our Students' Potentially Mature Minds**

During my education in Egypt, some teachers would view assessment as a part of the teachers' authority in the classroom. Tests and exams were seen, by some, as tools to penalize those who are not performing well in class, or to disregard/disqualify some learners from taking the course. However, in my view, the main purpose of assessment is not to label learners or assign them a grade, even though grading students is necessary. Rather the goal of assessment is to know where our students are struggling and how to help them. As Poehner (2008a) explains, if you see a piece of fruit that is not ripe yet, you do not dismiss it because it is not eatable. Rather, you would try to treat it in a way that facilitates the ripping process. Similarly, our students' struggle in their performance now is an indication for better performance in the future if we are able to provide the right type of assistance.

Dynamic assessment is about not only evaluating learners' performance in the current time, but also pushing their development and evaluating their potential to improve in the future. Even though it might be time-consuming and labor-intensive, I believe that dynamic assessment should be a part of every syllabus.

In this paper, I explore Dynamic Assessment and ways to conduct it in the beginners' classroom. I illustrate the rationale behind it and offer some examples from my own teaching experience with dynamic assessment.

## **The Application of Dynamic Assessment in the Arabic Classroom: A Reflection on a Lesson Plan**

### Abstract

This paper is divided into three sections. In the first section I review the theoretical background of Dynamic Assessment, which has its origin in Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory. Vygotsky proposed the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development or ZPD which refers to the distance between what learners can do with and without assistance. Since Dynamic Assessment takes into account the role of intervention during assessment, it is very sensitive to the learners' ZPD, unlike static forms of assessment. In the second section I present how my classroom teaching benefits from different approaches of DA by explaining a lesson plan I designed. This lesson plan incorporates the Graduated Prompt Approach (GPA) of Dynamic Assessment. I propose a scale of prompts that can be used in the assessment of oral production of novice Arabic learners. In addition, I show how teachers can benefit from different approaches to DA to gain qualitative and quantitative information about their students.

*Key words:* Dynamic Assessment; Sociocultural Theory

### **The theoretical background of Dynamic Assessment**

Vygotsky (1978) argues that what distinguishes human beings from other creatures is their ability to use and mediate tools to achieve their goals. These tools are in Lantolf's (2011) terms "artificial auxiliary means of acting—physically, socially, and mentally" (p. 25) that we create and use to achieve our goals or to regulate our activities. Humans mediate objects and use them as tools to regulate their activities. As I illustrated in the cultural Artifact, A child might use a counter as a tool to solve a math problem. This tool is used twice, first on the social level, as the child uses it as an object, and second on the individual level, when the child internalizes the concept. Vygotsky states that in the course of the child's development, "every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, *between people (interpsychological)*, and then *inside the child (intrapsychological)*" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57). Moving from the interpsychological to the intrapsychological is called internalization, which happens when a process that was social and external occurs internally.

In the previous example, the mediation was through an object. In the learning process, teachers provide learners with support by getting them involved in carefully designed activities which help them internalize concepts to use them to manipulate their thinking. In other words, through organizing activities, instructors provide another sort of human mediation to help students move from being object-regulated to being other-regulated to reach finally the state of being self-regulated.

It is crucial for the instructor to know the level of development of the students. In other words, what concepts are that students have internalized, what are the concepts are

still in the process of internalization and what are the concepts currently beyond student's level of development? According to Vygotsky (1978), what humans have already internalized is their actual development level. It shows what they can do on their own, without the help of others. What is more important for Vygotsky and for educators is the range of their capacity to develop more, which is their *zone of proximal development* (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). ZPD refers to the concepts that are still in the early stage of internalization, or that have not been internalized yet (Vygotsky, 1978). ZPD describes the potential level of development that includes what learners can do with the help of a mediator. Vygotsky (1978) defines ZPD as "the distance between the actual developmental levels as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86).

This definition of ZPD characterizes the role of the teacher in the classroom as well as the process of assessment. Poehner and Lantolf (2005) explain that the solo performance of a learner does not tell the teacher the complete picture of the learner's development. It only tells the teacher what the learner is able to do while he/she is self-regulated. In order to have a complete picture of the learner's development, two other pieces of information should be provided for the complete picture: "the person's performance with assistance from someone else and the extent to which the person can benefit from this assistance" (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005, p. 234). Sociocultural Theory (SCT) incorporates the concept of Dynamic Assessment (DA), which takes into account

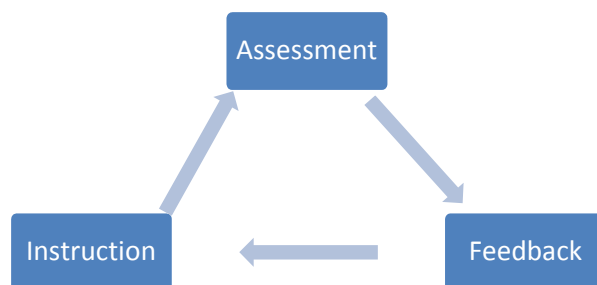
the role of intervention during the learner's performance. In DA, instruction is not separated from assessment. Rather, both of them are viewed as two faces of one coin.

For teachers, assessment in the language classroom is not limited to the administration of tests and assigning grades. Rather, it includes a number of purposes “such as understanding the language learning process and the difficulties that the students have and documenting language development” (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 395), most importantly providing students with *feedback*. Assessment that occurs at the end of a study period is referred to as summative assessment, which is opposed to formative assessment that is “designed to help form or shape learners’ ongoing understanding” (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 401).

The problem with both formative and summative approaches of assessment is that they do not take into account the changes that intervention and interaction can evoke in the examinee. Even though students might receive feedback in formative assessment, “it is usually offered after the assessment procedures have been completed” (Lantolf & Poehner, 2006, p. 41). In other words, traditional assessment procedures do not consider the potential skills that students may be able to develop if they are provided with additional, scaffolded help. In traditional assessment, feedback is seen as part of a static process. The teacher provides the assessment in a form of test, quiz, assignment, etc. Then the teacher provides feedback on the students’ performance (Figure 8.). It is up to the student then to benefit from this feedback. On the other hand, in DA, mediation is offered side by side with assessment and is sensitive to the learners’ ZPD.



Traditionally, assessment was viewed as a static snapshot of learner's performance. In the traditional view, tests are not, and should not be aimed at, improving examinees' performance. In fact, traditional on-dynamic assessment sees improvement of an examinee's performance during the test as a threat to the validity of the test (Lantolf & Poehner, 2007). On the other hand, SCT theorists claim that accounting for the dynamic nature of human mental functioning makes assessment more accurate.



*Figure 8. Relationship between feedback and instruction in Static Assessment*

Poehner and Lantolf(2005) explain that Vygotsky introduced two views of the ZPD. The first one is a quantitative view such as when he spoke about the ZPD in terms of the difference between the score a person achieves on an IQ test without help and the score he/she gets with assistance of others. In this case ZPD can be supplied as numerical value. Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002, as cited in Poehner & Lantolf, 2005) define DA as an assessment that considers the result of intervention in which the teacher provides help to the learner during the assessment (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005). While this definition fits for an interventionist approach, as I will explain later, it does not include all factors of DA. Even though the definition highlights the use of intervention, it sticks to the

quantitative factor of DA and pays no attention to the qualitative side of ZPD. (Poehner, 2008b) explains that assessment and instruction should be integrated, stating that “this integration occurs as intervention is embedded within the assessment procedure to interpret individuals’ abilities and *lead them to higher levels of functioning*” (p. 5, emphasis added).

We see in this view, instead of focusing on measuring students’ performance while doing a specific task, Poehner suggests that DA focuses on enabling learners to do the task. This approach not only underscores the role of DA in development, but also shows the role of the teacher/assessor as a mediator of learning who attunes mediation to fit the learners’ needs, and the role of the learners who develop their mental abilities while being assessed. These two views of DA provide the theoretical background of two different approaches of DA: Interventionist DA which is more standardized and follow psychometric methods, and Interactionist DA which focuses more on the qualitative value of assessment. Providing qualitative assessment is important because it characterizes learners’ challenges and helps uncover ways to overcome them. For example, it would be much more beneficial to let a learner know that he/she has difficulty in using gender-agreement than telling him/her that they got a score of seventy percent (Lantolf & Poehner,2007).

Carlson and Wiedl(1992) explain another perspective regarding the theoretical background of DA. They explain that intelligence can develop through biological and non-biological factors and that suboptimal performance is very likely due to these non-biological factors. Some of the factors that may influence learner’s performance during

the test are impulsivity, lack of motivation, and anxiety. In order to have a more accurate test score, these variables should be neutralized through Dynamic Assessment.

Based in this background, Carlson and Wiedlexplain their method of DA that they called *testing-the-limit approach*. In this method, learners are encouraged by the mediator to verbalize how they reach their answer, and they are given elaborative feedback. An example of that would be “Tell me what you see and what you are thinking about as you solve the problem. Tell me why you think the solution you chose is correct. Why is it correct and the other answer possibilities wrong?” (p. 164).

Overt verbalization and elaborative feedback are two key aspects that help standardizing testing-the-limit format. Through verbalization, examinees are asked to describe their thoughts about how to solve the given problem. Through elaborated feedback, “the experimenter tells the subject after an answer alternative had been chosen whether or not the choice was correct and why” (Carlson & Wiedl, 1992, p. 162). According to Poehner (2008a), verbalization is a crucial process, not only because it helps mediators understand how a learner thinks about the problem and, hence, adjusts their mediation, but also because it offers learners the opportunity of self-regulation which helps them mediate their own performance. Before explaining how I use the testing-the-limit approach in DA, I would like to explain a second method that has other advantages.

Another approach that inspired me while designing this lesson plan is called the *Graduated Prompt Approach* or GPA (Brown & Ferrera, 1985, as cited in Lantolf & Poehner, 2007). Following an interventionist approach, the instructor designs a scale of

prompts that he/she uses to help students during the assessment. The prompts are graduated from the most implicit to the most explicit, and ranges from a hint to a leading question to a complete demonstration of the problem's solution.

### **The lesson plan**

In my lesson plan, I have provided a scale of prompts to mediate student's performance in an oral production activity. In the assessment, learners had to describe an image of a family tree (see Appendix B). The student's reactions that triggered mediation varied from making a pause during the description, indicating that they are thinking what to say, or producing an error. The prompts that I provided included leading questions in the case of complete pauses, and elaborated feedback in the case of errors (Carlson & Wiedl, 1992).

In order to design the prompts, I referred to Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) who provide a mediation scale in which the mediator moves from the most implicit hint to the most explicit. Aljaafreh and Lantolf provide five levels of communication with the examinee. In Level 1, learners are not able to notice the error even with the intervention of the tutor, which means that learners do not have enough knowledge to understand the tutor move, or even have no awareness that there is a problem. In level 2, learners are able to know the errors but are not able to correct it even after the intervention offered by the tutor. In level 3, learners notice the error, and are able to correct it, only with the help of the tutor. In level 4, learners correct the error with no obvious feedback from the tutor,

and finally in level 5, learners use the correct form of L2 in an automatized way without need for correction (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994).

When there is an error, my first prompt is to repeat the error in a question intonation aiming to see if the learner is able to notice the error. In many cases, students are able to correct the error once I ask them to repeat the sentence. Then I ask the examinee if there is a problem with what he/she says. Then I ask leading questions that vary according to the error. If they make a pause, I ask them leading questions to help them verbalize their understanding of the picture. Table 4 summarizes my approach. I keep a printed copy of this table during the assessment to record the type and frequency of interventions needed.

Table 4  
*Scale of mediation moves*

Learner's Output	Mediator's Reaction	Frequency
Pause	The mediator asks a leading question: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- What do you see in the picture?</li> <li>- Who is this person?</li> <li>- What does he/she do?</li> <li>- What is his relation to this other person?</li> </ul>	
Error	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Mediator asks the learner to repeat what he/she said.</li> <li>- Mediator asks the learner if there is anything wrong in the sentence.</li> <li>- Mediator asks learner leading questions that help him/her identify the error. Examples are provided below               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Gender agreement                   <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Is this a guy or a girl?</li> <li>▪ How do you describe a girl?</li> </ul> </li> <li>○ Verb Conjugation                   <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Who is the subject in this sentence?</li> </ul> </li> </ul> </li> </ul>	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ How do you ...?</li> <li>○ Word choice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Is that uncle from the mother's side or from the father's side?</li> <li>▪ How do you say maternal uncle?</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	
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According to the number and the type of mediation moves that I provide, I am able to assess my students' level of development. The number of mediation moves tallied provide me with quantitative data that are standardized and generalizable in accordance with the interventionist approach. Furthermore, I take notes of other types of mediation that the students needed outside what was scripted. Record keeping reveals my students' areas' of struggle, and provides qualitative information of their performance. Even though two learners may get the same score in terms of the number of mediation moves, they may differ qualitatively in terms of the struggles they have.

### **Reflection on the lesson plan**

In many cases, students realize the error once I ask them to repeat. In other cases, students are not able to identify that error. Once I bring to their attention that there is something wrong, they are often able to produce the right form. In example 1, the student realized his wrong word-choice from the second prompt.

- (1) Student: huwa 'indahu bint. hiya ismuha saarah.  
'He has a daughter, her name is Sarah'

Mediator: huwa 'indahu bint?  
'He has a daughter?'

Student: na'am

‘Yes’

Mediator: Is there something wrong here?

Student: sarah hiyyah (pause) ‘ukht toom  
‘Sarah is (pause) the sister of Tom’

One of the important observations I have is that even though learners may reach the right answer in the same prompt, their reaction to the prompt may differ qualitatively. As in example (2).

(2) Student: haaree duktoor fee al-madrasah  
‘Hary [is a] doctor in the school’

Mediator: haaree duktoor fee al-madrasah?  
‘Hary [is a] doctor in the school?’

Student: Ya

Mediator: Is there anything wrong here?

Student: I am trying to say school, but doctors do not go to school, they go to the university, so I can say “haree duktoor fee al-jaami’ah”  
‘Harry [is a] a doctor in the university’

As we can see, from an interventionist view point, examples (1) and (2) reach the right answer in the same stage in the scale of prompts. However, in Example (2), the prompt leads the student to verbalize what she is thinking about. This means that she is still using her L1 to manipulate her thinking about Arabic. That is to say, the vocabulary has not been fully internalized in (2). On the other hand, in example (1), the student has better command of the Arabic vocabulary as he corrects the error once he listens to it. Even though they get the same score, (1) and (2) differ qualitatively. As suggested by Lantolf and Poehner (2007), I offered mediation in English in order to ensure that the

learner understands the mediation move. Lantolf and Poehner explain that SCT “recognizes the importance of the first language in mediating the internalization of additional languages.” (p. 74).

According to Poehner (2008a) collaboration between the mediator and the examinee within the ZPD is not only influenced by the quality of mediation; it is also dependent on learners’ reciprocity. According to Poehner (2008a), “learners’ reciprocity includes not only how learners respond to mediation that has been offered, but also their request for additional support” (p. 40). One example of reciprocity I have encountered and that was not scripted in the prompts was using the mediator as a source of information.

(3) Student: laa a’rif [pause] kayfa taqool “whether” bil ‘arabiyyah

‘I do not know [Pause] how do you say “whether” in Arabic?’

Mediator: Ithaa

Student: laa a’rif ithaa haree ya’mal fee al-mustashfaa

‘I do not know whether Harry works in the hospital.’

According to Poehner (2008a), this type of reciprocity is very important, not only because it helps the mediator understand exactly the type of mediation required, but also because the learner takes the responsibility to determine the type of mediation required. Learners are aware that they do not have full command of the language, and resorts to the mediator for help. According to Poehner, even though learners are not fully autonomous, they are practicing a form of self-regulation in which they know exactly what they need.



### **Conclusion and questions for future research**

The study of DA has helped me better assess my students quantitatively and qualitatively. Instead of assigning each student a score that does not offer a detailed interpretation of the student's ability, I try to make a profile of each student that describes specific struggles and the type of reciprocity needed during the assessment. However, it is quite clear that this method is time consuming and requires more preparation from the teacher. In addition, I faced the challenge of developing criteria for the prompts. I need to do further research to see if all mediation moves should be equal in value, and if not, how to assign each prompt its relative value. In order to help teachers overcome these challenges, training should be designed to help teachers conduct DA in a professional manner.

Annotated bibliographies

## Introduction

This part offers the reader more details about four main themes that were discussed in the TPS and in two of the Artifacts, namely the cultural artifact and the language artifact. Those themes are communicative language teaching, using technology in the classroom, diglossia, and dynamic assessment.

In my TPS, I speak about using the communicative approach of second language teaching and how it can be enhanced through the use of technology. Thus, the first annotated bibliography is about second language learning and teaching. In this section, I speak about books, articles and book chapters which I studied in the MSLT program and which strongly influenced my development as a teacher.

In the second section, I discuss another key part in my TPS which is using technology in the classroom. I focus on using computer-mediated communication to boost students' interpersonal communication skills in the L2. Even though I did not have the opportunity to practice this in the classroom, I look forward to using it in my future career.

The third part is also key. I refer to some seminal works on Arabic sociolinguistics that discuss diglossia. Understanding diglossia is fundamental for understanding code-switching in Arabic. I also speak about an important article that

introduced me to concept-based instruction, the method I attempt to use to illustrate code-switching to Arabic language learners.

The final annotated bibliography is about dynamic assessment. I discuss in this section the major books and articles that shaped my understanding of dynamic assessment and how I use it in the classroom.

## Second Language Learning and Teaching

In this section, I will present the most important books, book chapters, and journal articles that have shaped my understanding of second language learning and teaching. I started the MSLT program by reading *The communicative classroom* by Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell (2001). Ballman et al. cover the foundation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) beginning with the definition of classroom communication and its emphasis on oral communication to prepare learners for real-life communication. Ballman et al. describe the role of grammar in the classroom adopting a *middle-of-the-road* approach between the notion that grammar has no explicit role in the classroom and the notion that grammatical knowledge is the goal for language learning. The authors state that grammar should be taught in support of communication. In other words, learners need to know the rules of grammar that help them carry out the communicative activities to achieve the objectives of the lesson plans. One of the beneficial aspects of the book is the detailed explanations about lesson planning and task-based activities (TBA). The authors show how TBA should be designed to build incrementally on one another to enable students to achieve the culminating task/objective of the lesson plan.

The book also explains assessment and testing introducing Hadley's model of testing. Hadley shows that the discourse of questions/testing tasks can be either isolated sentences or sequential naturalistic discourse recommending a hybrid approach that benefits from various types of discourse.

Finally, the book explains classroom interaction and the model of IRE (interaction, response, and evaluation/feedback). In this model, the teacher initiates a question, the students respond, the teacher provides feedback or evaluation on their

response. This is also called the Ping-Pong technique. The authors recommend using this technique in warm-up activities, or in response to student comments. However, to ensure greater involvement, it better to follow a TBA design.

This book provided me with the background for implementing various types of activities such as total physical response, interview activity, and information gap activity. When I am about to design a new lesson plan, I often revisit chapter three to refresh my memory about the basic concepts of lesson planning.

After Ballmanet al. (2001)., I found that Lee and VanPatten's(2003) *Making communicative language teaching happen* provide a more in-depth explanation of the Communicative Approach, comparing it to other approaches such Audiolingualism. The authors explain the atlas complex of the traditional approach in which the instructor is the authority in class; the instructor is the source of information whose responsibility is to make sure that all the students have received the information correctly. On the other hand, Lee and VanPatten (2003) explain that in the modern approach the instructor is viewed as a facilitator whose responsibility is to organize the activities rather than transmitting knowledge.

The book explains how communication in the classroom facilitates expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning. What really helped me in this book is the “givens” of Second Language Acquisition which are provided in the second chapter. One of these givens is that “SLA involves the creation of an implicit (unconscious) linguistic system” (p. 15). This made me understand that SLA is more than some knowledge we learn in a grammar book. Rather, the creation of an implicit subconscious system involves a “complex process and consists of different processes” (p. 17). This book has

provided me with key tools of understanding the theories behind SLA and its application in the second language classroom.

Shrum and Glisan's (2010) *Teacher's handbook: Contextualized language instruction* is another important book, but different from the previous two in that it explains language learning as a social process, rather than a cognitive one. I see the first chapter as the most important chapter because it introduces the theoretical background of SLA, the role of input in SLA, and Krashen's monitor theory that includes the input hypothesis. According to Shrum and Glisan, Krashen claims that acquisition occurs when learners receive large amounts of comprehensible input a little beyond their current level of competence ( $i+1$ ). The second important work that Shrum and Glisan introduced to me was Long's contribution on the role of modified input; when speakers make their input comprehensible by simplifying it, they engage in *negotiation of meaning*. Furthermore, I was introduced to Swain's output hypothesis, which states that learners need to speak the language, not just be exposed to it, to acquire it.

To further enhance my understanding of these three steps of acquisition, input, interaction and output, and deepen my theoretical understanding of SLA, I read the first two chapters of a fundamental book in the field of SLA edited by VanPatten and Williams (2007), *Theories in second language acquisition: an introduction*. The first chapter provides an explanation of the nature of theory. According to VanPatten and Williams, a theory in SLA should explain the observable phenomena of language acquisition. Some examples of these observations are that acquisition happens incidentally and it requires exposure to input. A theory should also make predictions and offer some generalizations about the observation. The most important contribution of this

chapter is that it lays out common observations about language acquisition which provide the basic ground for linguists to theorize about SLA. In the second chapter, VanPatten and Williams provide an illustration of the early theories of SLA including behaviorism and Krashen's Monitor theory. Reading VanPatten and Williams made me curious about Krashen's theory, so I read Krashen and Terrell's (1988) *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*

Krashen had previously proposed a theory of second language acquisition supported by interrelated hypotheses. He differentiated between acquisition, which is a subconscious command of the language, and learning which is an understanding of the rules. He stated that learning is not necessarily an indication of acquisition, and that what really drives acquisition is comprehensible input. Krashen and Terrell (1988) propose the Natural Approach, in which they discuss how this theory can be applied in the classroom.

The authors described an irony about SLA which they call the "Great Paradox of Language Teaching" (p. 55), namely that language is best taught when the focus is the messages, not the conscious learning of the language. They state that whatever helps comprehension is important. That is why they recommend the use of visual aids and pictures. I now know that my favorite warming up activity, the picture file, has its roots in this theory.

Krashen and Terrell recommend also that, because native-speaker input is usually complicated input for L2 learners input should be simplified just as it is frequently done for L1 young learners. Then the authors state what looked to me like a very strange idea. They said, "According to the Input hypothesis, speaking is not absolutely essential for language acquisition. We acquire from what we hear (or read) and understand, not from



what we say” (p. 56). They also claim that “production emerges as the acquisition process progress” (p. 58).

From my own practice in the L2 classroom and from my experience as an EFL and then ESL learner, I understand the role of practice in acquiring the language. As ESL speaker, many times I am able to fully comprehend a given message, yet I am not able to reproduce it in the same quality. That is why I began reading on the role of interaction in SLA. That led me to read Long’s (1996) treasured article: *The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition* whose focus is interaction.

Krashen emphasis on input as the only cause of acquisition is modified by Long (1996), who emphasizes the role of interaction in his *interaction hypothesis*. Long claims that during interaction, individuals may provide positive evidence of understanding by showing that what the speaker is saying is correct or grammatical. However, and most importantly, they can also provide *negative evidence* which shows what is incorrect as well. Negative evidence can be implicit in the form of asking for repetition, comprehension checks, etc., and can also be explicit in the form of clarification of a specific grammatical rule or pronunciation. In addition, native speakers tend to adjust and simplify their speech to be understood by non-native speakers. This process of communication between native speakers and non-native speakers that involves simplification, and asking for clarification is called the negotiation of meaning. Long argues that negotiation of meaning between more competent speakers and language learners facilitates acquisition because it includes repetition, paraphrasing, and expansions.

After reading about the role of negotiation of meaning in SLA, I wanted to know about the importance of output in SLA, so I read Swain's (1985) article: *Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development*. Swain studied the relationship between input and output and their influence on language proficiency traits which include several components of communicative competence, namely grammatical, discourse, and sociolinguistic competence. She conducted her study on a group of children whose first language is English and who spent 7 years in an immersion language-learning program in France. Swain discovered that even though the students had been exposed to a huge amount of comprehensible input, their proficiency level was significantly lower than that of native speakers in terms of grammatical domain and oral production, which means that they had not acquired *native-like* proficiency. Swain argues that comprehensible output is necessary for acquisition, and that it is independent of the role of comprehensible input.

After reading these articles and books, I developed a general view of how second languages can be acquired. Krashen's input hypothesis is fundamental because it shows the vital role of input in acquisitions. However, Krashen did not pay the required attention to two other parts of the process: interaction and the output. Those two parts are explained by Long and Swain, as shown above. My understanding of these three processes has a crucial influence on my teaching philosophy and helps me outline my lesson plans.

### **Teaching Interpersonal Communication through CMC**

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has various applications in the language classroom. The book chapters and articles I present in this section explain the application of computer-mediated communication (CMC) in the classroom, the role of the teacher during CMC, and the potential of CMC to teach culture.

The first article I read about CMC is Guth and Helm (2011). Guth and Helm explain that many people believe that that culture can only be learned through a study abroad program. But the Internet offers new ways communication, providing access to authentic material and opportunity to create and share new resources. It also gives learners the opportunity to communicate and collaborate with fluent speakers of the target language. Furthermore, it bridges learners' identity outside the class with language learning in formal setting.

The article provides a comprehensive summary of the literature regarding teaching culture through technology, which they claim has focused on three main areas: providing access to authentic cultural sources, communicating and collaborating with target language communities, and bridging learners' activities in the classroom with language learning outside classroom. In this annotated bibliography my focus is on using communication and collaboration to enhance learners' awareness of the cultures of the target language.

One of key features of using technology in the language classroom is that it enables learners to communicate with geographically distant people. Telecollaboration, say Guth and Helm, for example is a model in which learners engage through bilingual and bicultural exchange. For example, the *Cultura* project enables students to

communicate with online peers of the target language using their L1. Explaining the rationale behind that, the authors state that the main goal of the project is cross-cultural communication, and “only in the L1 can students truly express the complexity of their own ideas and culture with their peers abroad” (p. 221).

Guth and Helm explain that research on telecollaborative learning has focused on linguistic issues such as negotiation of meaning, particularly from a psycholinguistic perspective. What is seen as a drawback, Guth and Helm explain, is that there is not much research regarding cultural perspectives in language learning. The relatively new emphasis on socially-oriented research focuses on intercultural sensitivity, motivation of learner’s autonomy, task-design, the role of the instructor, cultural patterns of use, and failed communication. Guth and Helm introduced me to the idea of using CALL to teach culture in the classroom. I got also good background about research and practices in this field.

After reading Guth and Helm (2011), I had a question that needed further investigation: What are some practical examples of CMC that I can use in the classroom? In order to expand my understanding of CMC I read Thorne (2006). Thorne explains that one of the basic implications of CMC in the classroom is *Internet-mediated intercultural foreign language education (ICFLE)*. Thorne discusses various models of ICFLE from different perspectives

He explains that one model of ICFLE is telecollaborative learning that includes “class-to-class partnership with institutionalized settings” (p. 7). In the telecollaborative model, two teachers work together in two different institutions and to design tasks that include pair work, small group activity, and whole class exchange. The model has several

strengths including institutional support and expert guidance. Furthermore, it provides learners with an opportunity to negotiate different cultural aspects. However, necessary level of coordination presents a challenge.

Another model of ICFLE is non-institutionalized tandem learning. The challenges of tandem learning include finding partners, initiating the contacts, and structuring the partnership in a way that serves language acquisition and raises cultural awareness. A third model of ICFLE is to link a cultural expert of the target language with learners in an institutionalized setting.

Thorne also provides models for task design in the ICFLE classroom. One model he illustrates is structured discussions. This model consists of multiple phases. In the first phase, learners exchange introduction letters. In the second stage, learners compare the parallel text. The teachers' role is to help students understand the theme of the FL text and facilitate reflection upon their own world view. The third and final phase includes a collaborative project in which learners produce a website with bilingual essays pertaining to a cultural construct such as family.

The language of exchange is an important concern when discussing different models of ICFLE. In some approaches to ICFLE, learners work with *any-code* contract. This approach has the advantage of filling in the gaps of communication as learners are able to use whatever code is most convenient. However, Thorne explains that the code-specific approach might be of more benefit because it pushes output. A third approach allows both partners to stick to their L1 as in the *Cultura* project. The rationale, as I stated above, is that it puts more emphasis on the cultural aspects of the target language community.

Thorne's chapter informed me about different models of using CMC in the classroom. I also learned about different techniques regarding the language choice and task design. Furthermore, I learned about potential challenges of each model. I look forward to be able to use ICFLE to bring Arabic culture into the classroom.

After understanding how important task design is in the ICFLE classroom, I read O'Dowd and Waire (2009) who further illustrate task design in ICFLE. This study includes a description of 12 different types of tasks that are related to cultural exchange in the classroom. The tasks are organized into three categories. The first category is "information exchange tasks" (p. 175), which includes learners exchanging information about their own culture. In some tasks learners are asked to inform their telecollaborative partner about their biographical information, background about their local schools, and other aspects of their home culture. O'Dowd and Waire explain that even though this task might seem *monologic*, it serves as a good introduction between partners and helps them develop an ethnographic study in a later stage about the target culture.

The second category is the *comparison and analysis task* in which learners are asked to conduct an analysis of products of both cultures, such as books and news articles, either with cultural focus or with linguistic focus. Finally, the third category is the *collaborative task* in which learners work with their telecollaborative partners to produce a joint product, such as a translation or a cultural adaptation of a text.

The paper provides two case studies in which the authors attempt to answer three questions: 1) How do instructors make decisions about task design including the degree of autonomy of the learner and the required end product? 2) What is the teacher's role during the exchange? 3) How does the instructor's role influence the end product? In

order to answer these questions, two case studies were conducted. The first case study addresses some issues that two teachers faced. The issues included the question whether these tasks should be designed by the teacher or by the learners, how much the teacher can intervene in the exchange, and finally how general/specific the task should be. In terms of language use, it was agreed that both languages should be used in different tasks; for example, four tasks in Spanish and four tasks in English. Tasks about the Spanish culture would be in Spanish and tasks about North American culture would be in English.

The discussion also included the level of autonomy that is given to the learners. The first teacher preferred more autonomy and gave the students a wide choice of tasks for which learners had to come to an agreement with telecollaborative partners regarding which task they should do. The other teacher preferred more structure. Learners were given specific tasks and they have to work with their partners to achieve a specific goal.

The second case study included the two teachers, English and Spanish, discussing task design. The tasks included information exchange and comparison and analysis of the cultural product. The teachers explained that the advantages of these tasks included ease of setting up tasks. The tasks helped students develop their language in terms of fluency and learner autonomy. However, teachers explain, in some cases the focus on cultural awareness was marginalized for some students. This article gave me more ideas about CMC in the classroom. In addition, I learned about different viewpoints of teachers regarding the use of CMC.

In order to smooth effective computer-mediated cross cultural communication, Yang, Chen, and Huang (2014) conducted a pilot study in a telecollaborative project between Chinese students and North American students. The study followed a mixed-

method approach that used questionnaires, interviews, and content analysis. The study investigated strategies for effective and smooth communication. The case study is followed by a comprehensive analysis for these strategies according to the findings of the data.

The research was guided by three theoretical models. The first model is *collaborative learning* which indicates two learners working together to achieve a common goal. The second model is called *Community of Inquiry* and assumes that learning occurs through interaction with three elements: cognitive, social, and teaching presence. The third theoretical framework is about evaluation methods for cross-cultural collaboration.

The findings of surveys show that the process of collaboration was influenced by language and culture; learners were interested in each other's culture, and their attitude towards online learning was positive.

The study addressed different teaching strategies when using CMC. The first identified strategy is the strategy topics of discussion. In the study, participants were given one week to understand each other, one week for cultural orientation, and two weeks to exchange knowledge about a particular topic. The second strategy is teacher's task model. Yang, Chen, and Huang explain that the role of the teachers is to design the learning environment, control the collaboration process and evaluate the outcomes. The third strategy is about the use of bilingual language resources. The study shows that it is beneficial for basic cultural terms to be listed in both languages for the learners. Finally, the fourth strategy is about the influence of foreign cultures on interaction. Students from different cultures behave differently. For example, the Chinese students tended to be less



direct in expressing their opinions than the North American students. Awareness of these differences will raise learners' cultural awareness and, hence, enhance their communication repertoire. This study taught me strategies for managing a long term CMC project, regarding task design.

After learning about strategies for task design, I wanted to learn more about role of culture in CMC classroom. Thus, I read O'Dowd (2013). O'Dowd explains how to use online communication with members of the target language community to develop intercultural competence through collaborative tasks. The article focuses on the teacher's role in collaborative tasks in terms of the skills, attitude, and knowledge that a teacher needs for conducting telecollaborative activities. The paper is based in the Delphi technique, a method that uses the judgments of experts and/or *experienced practitioners* to make an informed decision. The paper discusses different models to train teachers for skills needed in the telecollaborative class. O'Dowd explains that the literature review shows that much of the research focuses on the experiential modeling approach, i.e., with teacher bring offered the opportunity to take part in the tool and/or the process so that they can know what to expect and what might be the potential problems. However, O'Dowd states, there is not much research that has tried to offer a comprehensive set of skills and knowledge that teachers need to conduct telecollaborative learning with a focus on building intercultural competence.

O'Dowd claims that some of the drawbacks of Communicative Language Teaching is that it downplays the role of the target culture assuming that "interlocutors from different cultures would automatically mean and understand the same thing when engaged in conversation together" (p. 4). Research suggests that learners should enhance

their intercultural awareness through opportunities for authentic cross-curricular collaboration, which is made easy through telecollaborative learning. In intercultural citizenship education, learners are involved in telecollaborative projects in which they are asked to collect and share information “about how global problems are dealt with in their local cultures” (p. 4).

In telecollaborative activities, teachers are required to collaborate with teachers/collaborators from the other culture, which means that teachers themselves need refined intercultural skills. In the study, a panel of experts from different levels of foreign language education was consulted three times through online surveys. In the first survey, the experts were offered a draft of 30 statements regarding the skills that teachers need for telecollaborative learning including organizational, pedagogical, and tech-literacy skills. The experts were asked to evaluate the importance of these statements. The respondents provided 76 comments that were considered for a second draft for the statements. The second survey included 41 statements and was offered to the same group of experts. 56 responded and offered suggestions. In the final stage, 40 participants offered their final comments. These surveys have become the basis of a model of the basic skills that a teacher needs in a telecollaborative class.

The model consists of four sections: organizational, pedagogical, digital competence, and attitude. The organizational part focuses on clarity, structure, effectiveness, and a good working relationship. The pedagogical part focuses on the ability to connect the lesson plan to the cultural objective in the class’ curricula. The digital competence part focuses on basic Web 2.0 knowledge, the ability to use the appropriate tool, the ability to handle troubleshooting, and the ability to maintain the

privacy and the safety of students' information. The final part discusses the beliefs that teachers should have, and it including high cultural awareness, flexibility, willingness to cooperate, and understanding of the student-centered classroom.

This paper highlighted to me many challenges that may face CMC teachers. As I look forward to implement this approach in class, I hope to be able to handle these challenges.

CALL provides language teachers with many tools to enhance language acquisition among which is CMC. The journal articles and book chapters I illustrated above provided me with valuable information regarding the approach I should follow when designing syllabus and tasks related to CMC. These papers also contain resources to software, explanation to the role of the teacher, the role of the learners and the level of autonomy the teacher can give to the learner. Furthermore, I learned through reading these resources about the potential challenges that may face teachers during CMC projects. I look forward to be able to use CMC in the classroom. Afterward, I will integrate CMC in my syllabus for teaching second and foreign languages.

### **Diglossia**

The first time I heard about diglossia applied to Arabic was in presentation by Professor Abbas Benmamoun about the challenges that face modern Arabic Linguistics. Benmamoun explained that Arabic language has a long heritage that goes back two thousand years, and because of number of social and regional influences, Arabic has developed into multiple varieties or dialects. Yet, the classical form of Arabic has stayed in the same format because of religious and pan-national influences. That has resulted in the coexistence of two varieties of Arabic Language: vernacular and standard. Because of this session, I became curious about this linguistic phenomenon. If native speakers handle two distinctive varieties with ease, how can a student of Arabic as a foreign/second language acquire a native-like competence?

I began my investigation by reading a book about teaching Arabic as a foreign language. It is entitled *Handbook for Arabic Language teaching professionals in the 21st Century* and is introduced and edited by Whaba, Taha, and England (2006). It is a collection of papers written by Arabic teaching professionals and researchers from different universities around the globe and addresses different issues that face teachers of Arabic as a Foreign Language (AFL), among which is diglossia.

One of the important chapters in this book is written by P. Stevens (2006), who explains diglossia as a factor in the perceived difficulty of learning Arabic. In his paper titled, *Is Spanish really easy? Is Arabic really hard? Perceived difficulty in learning Arabic as a second language*, P. Stevens explains diglossia as a “spoken/written dichotomy” (p. 55). Arabic, says P. Stevens, has two major varieties: the *standard form*

known in western scholarly literature as Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and *colloquial* Arabic. He states that the *only* source of input that learners can find for MSA is written texts. Yet, learners cannot benefit from written language as input for spoken language, as the spoken form is usually colloquial. P. Stevens explains the MSA/colloquial dichotomy by stating that it is a matter of formal (literary) vs. informal (spoken). He claims that MSA is comparable to “English of Chaucer” (p. 55) that cannot be found in everyday talk.

P. Stevens’ dichotomous view is held by a number of other scholars in the same book. Yet, Younes (2006) goes in more detailed explanation of the different varieties. In his chapter *Integrating the colloquial with fuS-Haa in the Arabic-as-a-foreign-language classroom*, Younes describes his experience of teaching AFL for 15 years at Cornell University. In his study he presents the results of a survey conducted at Cornell University showing that majority of learners study AFL so that they can communicate with native speakers and understand written as well as spoken texts competently. Younes concludes that both varieties should be offered in the classroom. He mentions that the most quoted article about diglossia is Ferguson (1959, as cited in Younes, 2006) which he briefly summarizes.

Ferguson posited that a diglossic language has two varieties: High (H) language, ideally used in the church or similar high contexts such as political speeches and the like, and Low (L) language, used when talking to servants, waiters, etc. Younes explains that Ferguson’s view has been challenged by a number of scholars. He also cites Badawi (1971) who proposed the notion of multiple levels of languages, rather than two, including the language of the highly educated people, the language of literate people, and

the language of illiterate people. Furthermore, Younes explains that even educated speakers' speech ranges above the continuum between the standard and the vernacular. He explains that the program they have implemented at Cornell University integrates two varieties of Arabic: Contemporary *fuS-Haa*, which is the Arabic name used for any standard form, and Educated Levantine Arabic (ELA).

Younes chapter is an important contribution to the field, in my opinion, for several reasons. First, it introduces to English readers the basic differences between the standard and the vernacular form. Younes offers examples of basic phonological differences such as the change of the sound /θ/ in standard into /t/ in ELA as well as morphological and syntactic differences between the two varieties. Secondly, this paper challenges the often-held dichotomous view of diglossia, proposing instead multiple varieties. In addition, Younes was careful not to use the term *colloquial* as it is viewed by many scholars as a derogatory term; he prefers terms such as *vernacular* or *dialect*. Finally, Younes explains the Arabic program implemented at Cornell University that teaches ELA in the first two years because the focus is on everyday communication and moves smoothly to Contemporary *fuS-Haa* or MSA. Younes offers the foundation of what I call an integrative approach, and, I believe, researchers should build upon it by refining this concept and by studying which code to teach and when. In order to do so, we need first to precisely define each code, and then understand the use of each code by native speakers and when and why they switch between codes in their daily talk. Finally we need to study different approaches of teaching both codes in the classroom.

Several of these aims are met by Wahba's chapter in the same book. In his chapter *Arabic Language Use and the Educated Language User*, Wahba (2006) differentiates

between Modern Standard Arabic and Classical Arabic claiming that Ferguson's H is known as *Classical Arabic* while MSA is a lower level of Arabic. Wahba proposes two other levels of Arabic which he calls: Educated Regional Arabic (ERA) and Regional Arabic (RA), claiming that RA represents Ferguson's L while both MSA and ERA are two levels in-between H and L. Unlike Younes, whose division is done according to native speaker's social status, Wahba's division includes the function of each variety. He explains that Classical Arabic (Ferguson's H) is used in religious, pan-Arab, and literary discourse. MSA has a relatively limited function in these types, but is used in everyday writing and reading, in the media (print and broadcast), and as a common *koine* between Arabs from different regions. ERA is used as a medium of communication among educated Arabs including reading and writing. Finally RA (Ferguson's L) is a native variety that is used in oral communication by pretty much everyone in their homes with families. An important point Wahba makes is marking the overlap between varieties, giving a hint about the occurrence of code-switching within the same variety.

Bassiouney (2009) dedicates two chapters in her volume *Arabic sociolinguistics: Topics in diglossia, gender, identity, and politics* to diglossia and code-switching. In the first chapter she offers a literature review of the study of diglossia beginning with Ferguson's High/Low dichotomy. According to Bassiouney, Ferguson specified situations in which only one code is appropriate. For example, Ferguson's High code should be used in religious discourse, news casts, and poetry, while using the High variety is considered *inappropriate* with family friends and colleagues. Bassiouney explains that Ferguson spoke about language cross-linguistically and did not look at Arabic specifically as a standard case of diglossia. On the other hand, there are other

studies (e.g., Ryding, 2005 as cited in Bassiouney, 2009) that refer to three varieties: Modern Standard Arabic, Classical Arabic and Dialectical Arabic.

Bassiouney illustrates that even though research has refined the meaning of diglossia and introduced different levels, one should still presuppose the existence of Ferguson's two poles H and L.

It may be that 'pure H' or 'pure L' does not occur very often, and that there are usually elements of both varieties in any stretch of normal speech, but still one has to consider a hypothetical pure H or L to presuppose that there are elements that occur from one or the other in a stretch of discourse (p. 13)

The levels between H and L vary in different studies. For example, Bassiouney explains that Badawi (1973) has proposed five varieties: Heritage Classical, Contemporary Standard, Colloquial of the cultured, Colloquial of the basically educated, and Colloquial of the illiterate.

Bassiouney does not differentiate between bilingual Code-Switching and diglossic Code-Switching. She explains that switching can occur either between languages or between varieties of the same language. "So rather than use the term 'diglossic switching' to refer to switching between MSA and the different vernaculars, one can use the term 'code-switching' for that purpose" (p. 31).

Bassiouney argues that code-switching is a discourse-related phenomenon that is motivated by sociolinguistic factors. Bassiouney reviews three theories developed to explain the linguistic constraints of Code-Switching. The most important model reviewed is Mayer-Scotton's matrix language (ML) model. According to Mayer-Scotton (1998, as cited in Bassiouney, 2009) code-switchers shift from a dominant language called the Matrix Language (ML) which supplies the grammatical structure, to an embodied



language (EL) which supplies some of the morphemes resulting in code-switching. In other words, some of the morphemes of the embodied language appear in the grammatical frame of the matrix language. Accordingly, the system morphemes, such as articles and pronouns, are always in the ML while content morphemes, such as verbs and nouns, may occur in both languages/codes.

However, when referring to diglossic code-switching, Bassiouney shows that the Matrix Language model cannot explain many examples of code-switching. In her study, she analyzed a number of political debates, religious sermons, and university lectures. The data showed numerous cases in which speakers shift from MSA to Egyptian dialect and vice-versa in both content and system morphemes. Trying to explain this phenomenon, Bassiouney refers to the so-called composite ML in which the speaker uses system morphemes and content morphemes in both codes. Bassiouney concludes, "One needs more data to reach definite conclusions about structural patterns that occur in diglossic switching" (p. 58). Then she moves from discussing the structural patterns of Code-Switching to the social motivations behind them.

In explaining the social motivation of Code-Switching, Bassiouney illustrates that the topic and the participants work together to create a speech event. Code-Switching is determined in the early views of code-switching research by two main factors: the nature of the topic and the participants. After explaining different theories, Bassiouney states that "speakers as individuals make choices from their linguistic repertoire to achieve certain goals which are of significance to them" (p. 69). If the speaker uses a code that is not expected by the audience, then they are making a marked choice. These choices have different social functions that Albirini (2011) illustrates.

Albirini (2011) offers a deeper examination of the social function of code-switching. In his paper *The sociolinguistic functions of codeswitching between Standard Arabic and Dialectal Arabic*, he offers a corpus of cases of code-switching collected from audio and video recording of three domains: religious speeches, political debates, and soccer commentaries. Albirini describes code-switching as a “creative communicative act” (p. 537) that fulfils various sociolinguistic purposes. He explains that there are a lot of studies on Code-Switching in bilingual contexts as for example, the cases of Code-Switching between English and local languages in the multilingual countries of Africa where English is often used to avoid favoring a specific local language. However, Albirini explains, the sociolinguistic functions of bilingual Code-Switching and those of bidialectal diglossic Code-Switching of Arabic are not identical. Unlike bilingual Code-Switching, in a diglossic situation, two varieties coexist and are used interchangeably within a community.

Albirini explains that the majority of studies on diglossic Code-Switching draws on Ferguson’s (1959, as cited in Albirini, 2011) work which describes *situational* code-switching in which the speaker shifts from High code to Low code and vice-versa. In formal settings such as religious sermons, political debates, university lectures, etc. a speaker may switch from the high code to the low one. On the other hand, the Low code is used in less formal situation with family and friends, but a speaker may shift to the High code to convey several social functions. Other studies have illustrated that different code differs according to the time, the place, the speaker and the addressee. Albirini focuses in his study on the nature of the language within the same type of discourse,

particularly those cases of code-switching; he analyzed in the instances and proposed patterns of code-switching.

Albirini concludes that native speakers of Arabic shift from the SA to DA for eight reasons.

(i) to introduce formulaic expressions; (ii) to highlight the importance of a segment of discourse; (iii) to mark emphasis; (iv) to introduce direct quotations; (v) to signal a shift in tone from comic to serious; (vi) to produce rhyming stretches of discourse; (vii) to take a pedantic stand; and (viii) to indicate pan-Arab or Muslim identity. (Albirini, 2011, P. 541)

He emphasizes that these forms of code-switching “occur in all three forms of discourse” (p. 541). Thus, Albirini suggests that Code-Switching from DA to MSA is not motivated by the type of discourse; rather it is motivated by “prestige, importance, eloquence, seriousness, and linguistic complexity” (p. 547). On the other hand, when speaking in MSA, native speakers switch to SA for nine connected reasons.

(i) to induce parenthetical phrases and fillers; (ii) to downplay a particular segment of the discourse; (iii) to signal indirect quotes; (iv) to simplify a preceding idea; (v) to exemplify; (vi) to mark a shift in tone from serious to comic; (vii) to discuss taboo or derogatory issues; (viii) to introduce daily-life sayings; and (ix) to scold, insult, or personally attack. (p. 547)

All of these cases can be related to importance, sophistication, seriousness, prestige, accessibility or identity. These are the basic concepts that we, Arabic language educators should focus on when teaching code-switching. This led me to think about concept-based instruction to know how to introduce these concepts in the classroom.

In their paper *Mediation as objectification in the development of professional discourse: A corpus-informed curricular innovation*, Thorne, Reinhardt, and Golombek

(2008) have introduced a curricular innovation to teach academic spoken English to the International Teaching Assistants (ITAs). Thorne et al. explain that ITAs are always challenged by the pragmalinguistic aspects of academic spoken discourse. Using the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English, the authors developed corpus-informed activities that display the contrast between informal English and Academic Spoken English.

Thorne et al. claim that many studies describe the nuances of different discourses types across family, work, and other social situations. To complement that body of work, Thorne et al. analyzed a corpus of academic spoken English. Through corpus-analysis, they identified high-frequency of elements spoken academic discourse and developed resources that underscore genre awareness. Thorne et al. draw on the Vygotskian approach of pedagogy, highlighting mediating tools, such as texts, notation and schematization. Their approach begins with orienting and preparing learners by offering an overview of genre theory and language discourse. This stage is followed by conceptual materialization in which concepts are explained via graphic organizers and flow charts. Finally, the authors recommend that final stage includes individual and group verbalization activities.

The first stage aims at raising awareness of genre structure. Thorne et al. emphasize that academic discourse is predictable, recurrent, and systematic. McCarthy and Carter (1994 as cited in Thorne et al., 2008) provide a number of principles for raising genre awareness. First: Contrastive Principle which focuses on comparing text types, the Continuum Principle, which involves exposing learners to a variety of texts in

the same genre, but by different writers. Finally, the Inferencing Principle which is concerned with strategies of literary understanding.

Thorne et al. research is highly congruent to my research in code-switching. Academic discourse and social discourse are comparable, though not identical, to MSA and DA. In my cultural artifact, I apply the concept-based approach provided by Thorne and others to teach the concepts behind code-choice to Arabic learners. This approach will raise their awareness about the genre structure and its influence of code-choice.

In this annotated bibliography, I illustrated how my understanding of diglossia has developed through reading researchers see diglossia as a dichotomy (e.g. P. Stevens, 2006). However, further investigation of the topic revealed to me the existence of several levels of Arabic as Wahba (2006) illustrates. I learned that native speakers of Arabic do not speak a pure code intrinsically; rather, they tend to switch from a code to another for several reasons. Bassiouney (2009) and Albirini (2011) explain the social motivations behind code-switching. Albirini also identify specific concepts behind these social motivations. Finally, I learned from Thorne et al. (2008) about concept-based instruction, an approach I propose to teach code-switching in the Arabic language classroom.

## Dynamic Assessment

I began reading about Dynamic Assessment (DA) in my study of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. In his work *Mind in society*, Vygotsky (1978) explains that assessing learner's actual level of development is not enough. In fact Vygotsky was not concerned at all with students' current abilities. His concern was how to measure the process of developing these abilities. One of the main contributions that Vygotsky added to language pedagogy is shifting the focus of assessment from measuring the learners' current capacity to measuring the process of development of the learners. In order to achieve this, Vygotsky proposed the concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which describes the potential level of development that includes what learners can do with the help of a mediator. Vygotsky defined ZPD as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers"(p. 86). My study of the concept of ZPD made me curious to know about the way I can use this concept, as a teacher, to assess my students' abilities. So I started reading about DA.

The first paper I read about DA was in a chapter in the valuable volume *Sociocultural Theory and Teaching of Second Language*. In this book, Poehner (2008a) introduced his paper: *Both sides of the conversation: The interplay between mediation and learner reciprocity in dynamic assessment*. I learned from this chapter that ZPD is not just an alternate to the traditional intelligence quotient (IQ); rather, it is "a new way of organizing all educational activities including teaching and assessment" (p. 33). Poehner shows that learners who may perform equally in a Non-Dynamic Assessment

(NDA) may have great differences if they are offered assistance during assessment. This assistance can be “hints, leading questions, and demonstrations” (p. 33). Poehner also states that DA supports learners to engage in activity, shows full range of learners’ ability, and fosters development. Poehner states that there are two major approaches of DA: interventionist and interactionist.

As for the interventionist approach, Poehner states that it adheres to the traditional procedures of traditional assessment in terms of generalizability, standardization, and quantification. It can follow the sandwich format in which learners are provided with a traditional NDA, followed by an intervention, which is followed, in turn, by another test. In the cake format, on the other hand, the mediation is provided side-by-side with the assessment. In both cases, mediation is scripted and is given in the form of a set of prompts that graduate from the most implicit to the most explicit. In this case “counting the number of mediating moves learners need to complete a problem (no mediation, the first prompt only, the first two prompts, etc.) is an indication of their ZPD” (p. 38).

Poehner indicates that the problem with the interventionist approach is that the mediator is limited to the script of the prompts and cannot deviate from them. That is why he puts more emphasis on the interactionist approach which does not constrain the assessor’s mediation. In the interactionist approach, the mediator provides learners with profiles that include the mediator’s observations and commentary for the learner’s interaction with the mediator during the assessment. Poehner recommends that the assessment should be according to learners’ reciprocity to the mediation. Learners’ reciprocity towards mediation ranges from negotiation of mediation or ask the mediator for information to more implicit role such as seeking mediator approval or even rejecting

mediation. The role of mediator is crucial in interactionist DA. For example, if the learners fail to answer the question correctly, the mediator will ask them the reason why they said this. From their answer, the mediator will be able to offer the exact type of needed mediation. For example, if the reason is mere guessing, the mediator will be able to reorient the learner towards the problem. If it is misinterpretation of direction, the instructor may be able to explain the direction again. Furthermore, if the learners show incorrect information, the instructor may ask them to provide evidence for their claim, etc. An important challenge to this approach is the ability to provide an exhaustive list of mediating moves. (Poehner, 2008a).

After reading Poehner (2008a), which did not offer a lot of practical examples, I became more curious about specific applications of DA in my teaching. Thus, I read Lantolf and Poehner's (2007) book: *Dynamic assessment in the foreign language classroom: A teacher's guide*. Lantolf and Poehner provide a five-chapter volume that offers detailed explanation of the use of DA in the foreign language classroom. The authors offer an overview of the theoretical background of DA and explain its roots in the works of Vygotsky and Luria. They explain that even though Vygotsky did not use the term Dynamic Assessment, researchers can trace back its roots in theory. It was Luria (1961, as cited in Lantolf & Poehner 2007), Vygotsky's colleague, who first used the term.

Vygotsky's ZPD explains that assessment should occur when learners are offered assistance or mediation that helps them stretch their abilities from their current level of development to the potential level. Lantolf and Poehner (2007) explain that to arrive at precise assessment of a learner's ZPD, instruction and assessment should not be separate



from each other. Most importantly, the authors provide specific applications for the foreign language classroom. Lantolf and Poehner explain four different studies that apply DA. The first one is *Lerntest* or The Learning Test which is a language aptitude test provided to international students to measure their ability to learn a foreign language. The test requires applicants to provide a grammatical analysis of an invented language, while there is a mediator who provides a scripted intervention to the test-takers. The result counts not only for what the test-takers were able to achieve, but also for how much mediation they needed. Another example that Lantolf and Poehner provide of DA application is a language placement test that is based on the OPI format with the interviewer providing a detailed explanation of what areas the learner needs to focus on. The third application is integrating instruction and assessment in the classroom. And finally, in the fourth application, Lantolf and Poehner explain a scale of how mediation can be provided from the most implicit to the most explicit. Lantolf and Poehner cited number of papers that explains these applications in more details. I found it very beneficial to go to some of these papers to further my understanding of DA.

One of the important papers that enhanced my understanding of the theoretical background of DA was Poehner and Lantolf's (2005) *Dynamic assessment in the language classroom*. After explaining the root of DA in SCT, they direct my attention to a crucial difference between interactionist and interventionist DA depending on two different interpretations of ZPD.

Poehner and Lantolf (2005) explain that Vygotsky showed different interpretations of ZPD. One interpretation introduced ZPD as the difference between learners' scores when they take a test without help and their score when they are offered help. In this case

ZPD is quantified in the form of a numeric value. However, Vygotsky offered later a more qualitative view of ZPD that focuses on understanding and enhancing learners' abilities that are still in the process of maturation. The authors show that the interventionist approach to DA, which is standardized and presented in psychometric values, has its roots in the quantitative interpretation of ZPD while interactionist DA is mainly developed through the qualitative interpretation of ZPD.

Through my study of SLA, I learned about Formative Assessment (FA) which is connected with instruction and designed to gather information about learners to attune language instruction to meet the learners' needs. I found a lot of similarities between FA and interventionist DA, and wondered how they are different. Poehner and Lantolf (2005) explain the difference in detail in this paper. They show that there are two forms of FA: planned and incidental. In planned FA, learners are given specific tasks and assess their progress on a scale. The information gathered will help teachers design their instruction in a way that meets the learners' needs. On the other hand, incidental FA takes place as part of everyday instruction. From this explanation, I can draw a lot of similarities between FA and DA. However, Poehner and Lantolf explain that "FA seems to be a hit-or-miss process that varies from teacher to teacher" (p. 254). In addition, in FA teachers "are not intentionally attempting to negotiate a ZPD" (p. 254). Even if the students are provided feedback in FA, it is usually unsystematic and separate from instruction.

In his book *Dynamic assessment: A Vygotskian approach to understanding and promoting l2 development*, Poehner (2008b) provides a comprehensive description of DA, from the theoretical background to the application in the classroom. Poehner differentiates between interventionist DA when intervention is scripted and the amount of

mediation is assigned in a numeric value on one hand, and interactionist DA when interaction is not scripted and is tuned according to the learner's need and the main focus is the quality of learners' performance on the other. Poehner explains that one of the advantages of standardized interventionist DA is that it makes it easy to obtain numerical results for large number of learners. On the other hand, it puts limitations on the mediator and hinders him/her from attuning the mediation according to the learners' need, which is a disadvantage. However, "some DA practitioners are willing to make this sacrifice to meet the demands of their assessment or research context" (p. 44). Poehner introduced me to the Testing-the-Limit approach to DA which focuses on asking learners to verbalize their answers. As Poehner states, understanding how the learner thinks about the problem is more important than getting a correct answer. That is why in this approach the mediator asks the learners to explain how they understood the problem. "Try to think aloud. I guess you do so when you are alone and working on a problem" (p. 49).

According to Poehner "Carlson and Wiedl [...] have developed various levels of standardized verbalization prompts designed in some cases to encourage learners to think aloud so that the researchers can better assess where problems occur during task solution" (p. 49). However, Poehner did not provide sufficient explanation on how testing-the-limit can be standardized, which led me to search for the original paper by Carlson and Wiedl.

Carlson and Wiedl (1992) wrote: *Principles of dynamic assessment: The application of a specific model*, in which they differentiate between person variables and assessment variables. They examined how learners' mental functions are influenced differently by those two variables. They explain that the model they provide is contrasted to the common model (test-train-retest) as it offers learners help during the assessment

procedures. Carlson and Wiedl introduced me to a more in-depth explanation of the theory behind DA. Non-Dynamic Assessment is offered by stability theorists who see mental functions as relatively enduring, provided that they are in a “moderately constant environment” (p. 154). On the other hand, change theorists see human mental functions as a dynamic process that is subject to change due to “cognitive, metacognitive and affective factors” (p. 154). Stability theorists see assessment of learners as a static snapshot. For them, tests are not and should not be aiming at improving examinees’ performance. In fact, they see improvement of examinee’s performance during the test as a threat to the validity of the test. On the other hand, change theorists posit that the dynamic nature of human mental functions makes assessment more accurate.

Reading Carlson and Wiedl (1992) made me aware of another dimension of the difference between traditional assessment and DA. However, I was still curious about DA application in the language classroom. So, I read a very famous paper in this field, *Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development* by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994). The authors of this paper do not mention the term Dynamic Assessment in their work. Their focus is on the effect of negative feedback in regulating second language learning. Aljaafreh and Lantolf’s focus is on answering the question “Does error correction lead to learning, or are corrective moves by teachers or other caretakers ineffective?” (p. 465). They explain that corrective feedback maybe message-focused or code-focused. It also may occur implicitly in the form of confirmation checks or explicitly by providing the correct form. The importance of studying the impact of negative feedback in DA studies is that mediation that is

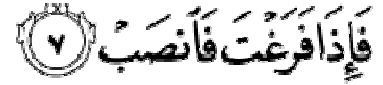
offered during assessment is a sort of instant feedback that the examiner provides during the assessment.

Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) explain that corrective feedback influences acquisition positively. A number of studies have shown that “L2 learners provided with corrective feedback do indeed outperform control groups given minimal or no negative input” (p. 466). More interestingly, they show that to achieve the best result of corrective feedback, it should be attuned to individual learners. Aljaafreh and Lantolf examine specifically the influence of corrective feedback on the learner’s written performance. They conducted one-on-one tutorials in which learners were provided with corrective feedback. They provide criteria on how learners “show signs of movement away from reliance on the tutor” (p. 470). They state that assessment can be “determined by the frequency and quality of help that the learner elicited from the tutor” (p. 470). The type of help provided varies from highlighting the error to correcting the error. Aljaafreh and Lantolf provide a scale of 12 steps that ranges from the most implicit mediation, or no mediation at all in which the tutor asks a learner to correct their own errors, to the most explicit mediation in which a learner is provided with demonstration and examples.

In conclusion, I learned from the readings that offering help during assessment offers more precise understanding of students’ actual level of development in addition to their potential abilities for development. In addition, it promotes development. This help can be standardized, pre-scripted, and offered in numerical value, as in the case of interventionist DA, and it can also be tunable to learners’ needs as offered in the interactionist DA. Both approaches have their advantages and disadvantages.

I see two important challenges for the application of DA. The first challenge is a procedural challenge. It falls upon L2 pedagogy researchers to design curricula with specific DA procedures to concretize DA concepts. Second, there is an institutional challenge for schools and universities to provide teachers with suitable training for DA application to achieve the best result.

## Looking forward



*“When thou art free (from thine immediate task), still labour hard!”*

[*Qur'an 94:7*]

Although my work in the MSLT program is coming to an end, I know that there is still much to do in my path of professional development. There are two possible tracks I may take upon graduating from the Master's program: teaching languages or conducting research. I would definitely enjoy a career as an Arabic Language teacher and/or an EFL/ESL teacher. I am also considering pursuing a PhD in the field of applied linguistics.

I would like to continue developing the skills that I learned in the MSLT program. One possibility is teaching Arabic for speakers of other languages, either in Egypt or somewhere else. Another possibility is teaching EFL in Egypt. I would like to teach English to adults in community centers or to university-level students. Upon gaining enough experience in teaching languages, I would also like to teach applied linguistics. I would like to specialize in training teachers of ESL in Egypt, so that I could transfer the knowledge I learned from the MSLT program in the USA to other teachers in Egypt.

Another possible track is doing research in applied linguistics. I would like to study how other fields of linguistics inform applied linguistics. For example, a possible project I would love to conduct is applying a corpus analysis of code-switching cases in Arabic in order to gain further understanding of the social motivations of code-switching

in Arabic, and investigate the possible pedagogical implication of the results. Such a research would explore how sociolinguistics and corpus linguistics inform applied linguistics.

After all, I am grateful for all the professors, colleagues, and friends who helped me through the Master's program, those of whom I mentioned in the acknowledgement and many others. I would like them to know that they have made a great difference in my world. I look forward to be able to help others through teaching and learning so that the ripples of the influence of those who helped me will be continue to affect others.

And all praise is due to God, the Lord of the World.



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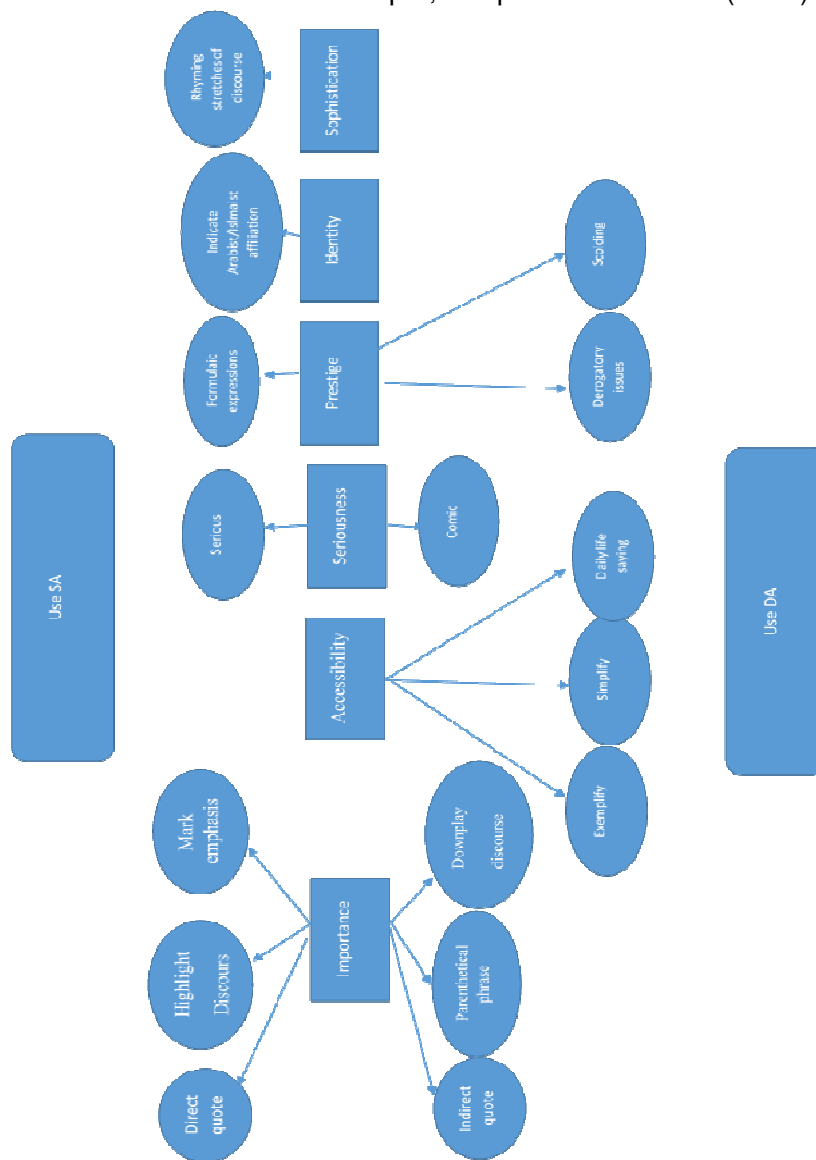
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### Appendix A

Materialization of CS concepts, Adapted from Albirini (2011)



## Appendix B

### Oral production prompt

